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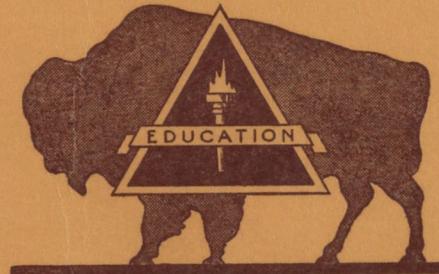
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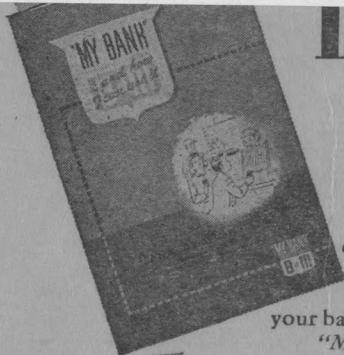
RESEARCH BULLETIN No. 19

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RESEARCH BULLETIN No. 19

DECEMBER, 1955

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Editorial

The nineteenth issue of the Research Bulletin has been produced with some difficulty, not because material for publication was lacking, but because time to devote to editorial work was scarce. The Faculty staff are "reaping" a very heavy load of work. It was "sown" over the past six years ever since it was decided to carry the Faculty facilities to off-campus points for autumn and winter in-service training of teachers. So many teachers have taken advantage of these offerings that a very large crop of graduate theses is now arriving on staff desks.

Over seventy students are currently working towards the Master of Education degree. This means a load of approximately fifteen graduate research projects to be guided by each staff member. This has to be undertaken in addition to two off-campus graduate courses each session, and the increased load of those taking the one year full time initial training program. Each staff member is adviser to twenty beginning teachers in training. There is a shortage of teachers and there is also a shortage of teacher educators, but while there are quantitative shortages, it cannot be said that qualitatively there is anything but a marked improvement in recent years.

The tenor of the articles in this issue certainly supports and urges the trend toward finer quality at all levels of education. The Canadian Education Association is particularly to be congratulated in this respect, for through the Kellogg Foundation Funds it has been able to organize meetings and exchanges between the personnel in the ten provinces. This has given leaders in different phases of education opportunities to learn by discussion and argument. Moreover, the arguments have been the more fruitful because of the recent upsurge of interest and activity in research right across Canada. There has been much to exchange and much to discuss.

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RAISE YOUR SIGHTS *

T. A. McMASTER

General Secretary, Manitoba Teachers Society



THE greatest difficulty in the physical warfare of the past was the multiplicity of targets. There were so many targets to be hit that many of the earlier campaigns of history were comparatively ineffective. Campaigns became effective only when fire-power became concentrated, when warfare became a science, when mankind had perfected a weapon that could be aimed with a pinpoint precision carrying with it the annihilation of the difficulties to be overcome. Campaigns became effective only when the forces of freedom and their tacticians raised their sights, ignoring that which came immediately into the line of vision and of fire, when they aimed at and hit the long-term objective, the real target, the source of the original trouble.

The analogy between the campaign which teachers are waging through their professional organizations and the physical campaigns of modern warfare could be followed step by step with completely parallel reasoning with but one very important exception. A physical warfare campaign is destructive. Our type of campaign is constructive. We aim at our target, not to destroy it, but to rid it of all encumbrances, to clear it of all camouflage, so that it may be easily recognized and more readily accepted as the goal to which we strive.

What then is our primary target? What is this goal toward which all of our teaching power, all of our personal and professional talents and tactics must be directed? It can be stated very simply. Our goal, as professional teachers, is to supply mankind's greatest need, the need to learn. It is just as simply stated as all that, "to supply mankind's greatest need, the need to learn."

To satisfy that need to learn, we must have an educational system which is financially able to function; a system which will contribute to the physical and mental welfare, to the moral character and to the abiding loyalties of all of our people regardless of their creed, ethnic origin or their current geographical residence. We must have an educational system that will have as its aim, for each person, the acquisition of Wisdom, built upon its seven indestructible pillars. The Book of Proverbs tells us that, "Happy is the man that findeth Wisdom . . . the merchandise of it is better than the merchandise of silver and the gain thereof than fine gold . . . more precious than rubies . . . all the things thou canst desire are not to be compared unto her . . ."

That is Wisdom, the goal of all Education. It is based on Understanding, Knowledge, Integrity, Judgment, Imagination, Courage, Tolerance and

*The third annual University of Manitoba, Faculty of Education Alumni Lecture, November 5th, 1955.

Faith. These are the pillars of Wisdom. Not all of them can be attained through text-book study. Not all of them can be recognized as educational targets by young people teaching with an academic, sociologic or philosophic background of an incomplete Grade XI or Grade XII education. They must be attained by careful tuition; by trial and repeated error; through the inspiration of mature, socially-minded teachers; and, finally, by ultimate success in living. It is our task to help all students attain that so-necessary goal, or to get as close to it as they possibly can. It is to the personal, professional and public recognition of that target, an educational system which will supply mankind's greatest need, the need to learn that you and I are challenged to raise our sights. We must not only recognize the target but we must realize, and we must make others realize its worthwhileness.

We must raise our sights in many ways:-

- (A) In our educational aims;
- (B) In the field of professional training and competence;
- (C) In developing our resources;
- (D) In our public relations programmes;
- (E) In our recruitment and retention of teachers;
- (F) In our administration of Education and
- (G) In our evaluation of the true place of Education in our present society.

It is not going to be an easy task. It certainly won't be a very pleasant task. If we accept this challenge, if we attempt to remedy many of the current defects in the public's evaluation of the aims of Education and if we draw attention to the public's own feeble efforts to apply appropriate remedial measures, we will immediately come under suspicion and we will be challenged at every step without establishing better liaison. We shall be asked to prove everything we say.

Some of us have chuckled at the story of the two American rabbits. One said, "I'm scared stiff! Joe McCarthy is going to investigate antelopes." "What are you afraid of?" scoffed the other, "You're not an antelope." "No, I know I'm not," replied the first rabbit, "but how can I prove it?"

It is going to be very difficult to prove **everything** we say when we attempt any reformations in Education.

In raising our sights, it will be necessary for us to re-examine many of our educational practices; a re-examination of some of our basic philosophies and a re-examination of ourselves, culminating possibly in a re-dedication of ourselves, and of our talents, to our chosen task.

In this re-examination, we shall undoubtedly recognize that there is room for a great deal of improvement in the work of our schools. As professional people, we do not improve the situation if we turn our backs on the obvious excesses of those teachers who seem to be more concerned with methods, manipulations and esoteric jargon than with the proper substance and stuff of Education. Nor shall we improve it by giving lip-service to our philosophy and objectives while doing absolutely nothing to implement them. This is one target area where we very definitely must raise our sights.

But what **is** the proper substance and stuff of Education? What are we going to teach? What does man need to learn? Someone shrugs this off

as being a curricular problem, the responsibility of the Department of Education and its Director of Curriculum. Nothing could be further from the truth. The vast dimensions of this problem, the curriculum problem, if you like, require for its solution the intelligent understanding and the united, co-operative efforts of parents, teachers, administrators, legislators and the general public itself—everybody!

Are we going to teach facts and the techniques that will ensure a rapid acquisition and a permanent retention of those facts? Is that what we should be doing? Or shall we teach facts and develop some method of using them to assist our young people to develop desirable democratic behaviours, attitudes, habits, social skills and graces?

It is generally agreed that we should have a core of what is termed general-education, with sufficient special-interest areas to take care of individual and group differences. However, what should be included in such a programme is interpreted in as many ways as there are curriculum experts, whether they come from Chicago, Columbia, Stanford or McMaster University.

We must raise our sights in this matter of curriculum content and educational aims. We must do more for the slower-than-average pupil and we also must do a great deal more than we are now doing for the better-than-average pupil. We must provide a suitable education to meet the rapidly increasing need for "bigger men in a smaller world."

It is generally agreed that our curriculum must be as varied and as rich as we can afford to have it, because only by making it varied can we offer achievable goals for everyone. To set up achievable goals, we long ago deserted the standards set up by a tiny minority who had the aptitude, the talents and the desire to be scholars. Let us have scholars! Let us have **more** scholars! Let the scholars be even more **scholarly**, but let us set for all others, goals within their own range of achievement. "Almost impossible," murmurs the administrator. "It would cost an awful lot of money," murmurs someone else. It's NOT impossible, but it certainly WOULD cost money. And we can afford to pay that money!

There is general agreement also that we should, if possible, recapture from our ancestors and teach in our schools their **ringing affirmations of belief** in our country, in our way of life; their respect for free and open debate and their willingness to meet new conditions with new remedies. Surely here are fundamentals which all men and women of goodwill and courage may defend and toward which we should raise our sights.

We have not been vigorous enough in combatting the sort of mass-education which is aimed at the average, and which neglects the exceptional children at each end of the scale. We have tended to give way supinely under local and ill-informed pressures and to concentrate too much upon the so-called "practical courses" which attempt imperfectly to duplicate the experience of an apprentice. Our basic purpose is to develop the mind and not to provide vicarious vocational apprenticeship. There is enough anti-intellectualism in this country as it is. We, as professional people, should not, even by **implication**, be willing contributors to it.

We ought also to show greater resolution in combatting those influences which believe that Education can best be achieved if the student is carefully isolated and insulated from all ideas and all points of view except

those which prevail in a given community at a given time. Such an insular attitude is nonsense, but it is a nonsense that is rather widely held.

If, as his capacities develop, the student is carefully and objectively taught about the differing ideas which men hold about man and society and the universe, and also an appreciation of the virtues and objectives of our chief religious denominations, he will be better equipped to deal with the problems and responsibilities of mature life than if he is left unprepared, to listen to special pleaders later on. The "ignorance which may be bliss" is no proper basis for the operation of a modern democratic society. If our teachers are not courageous about this matter, then the evil counsellors of society will be.

We must also raise our sights when we seek out the target area of Professional Training and Competence. It is fashionable these days to discuss the teacher shortage at great length. I propose to mention it briefly, later on. It is a very grave shortage, this shortage of highly qualified and experienced professional teachers.

But there are other shortages just as grave as the shortage of teachers, the shortage of man-power. One of the greatest of these is the shortage of ideals—the shortage of ideals with grandeur; ideals with spaciousness; ideals that dig deep down into our past and which then come to life in our own hearts, on our lips and in our actions—ideals that give teachers a sustaining sense of mission. Without this sense of mission, no matter what else we have to offer, we shall fall that much short of being a really good teacher. Without it, our daily assignments are bound to become meaningless. We have been awfully timid about this sort of thing in the past, timid about showing how we feel about our profession. We have been holding ourselves in. We have been diffident and we have been selling ourselves short.

I would like to offer a few observations about some of the better teachers with whom I am fortunate to be associated, teachers who have raised their sights. They are professionally alert. They are not sitting out the teacher crisis on remote little islands of self-containment. All of them see teaching as one way to make a rich life, even if they barely make a living. **Whatever** they doubt, they never doubt the importance of their professional work. They have plenty of convictions about their profession. They are doing what they can to improve its standards. They are active in their professional organizations and in a variety of research and community projects important to educational progress. They are impatient with the mores of a profession that perpetuates, within its own ranks, such traditions as "the higher the grade taught, the greater the professional prestige" and, "the farther away from the child, the greater the professional salary."

The best teachers of my acquaintance I know are very enthusiastic about the communities in which they teach. There seems to be a happy freedom from irksome personal restrictions on the one hand and whole-hearted community approval on the other. Our better teachers are big-minded people, socially at ease, bearing no resemblance whatever to the wall-flowers so dear to the hearts of some of our cartoonists and so close to the pattern to which all too many of our members think that they must conform.

Good teachers are artists in human relations. They have to be quick on the intellectual trigger to keep up with the mischievous, the creative, the contradictory and the nimble-witted. They are emotionally alive to catch the overtones of social behaviour, overtones that are so important when they are working with the baffled, the insecure, the hypersensitive and the frustrated. Consequently, these better teachers don't talk too much about teaching methods but rather of understanding the child and about the urgency of teaching him, by precept and by example, the principles of living happily with the others who live around him. Here is an area where teachers must continually keep their sights high. Dare to deal with big ideals, ideals of grandeur, a spacious sense of mission. Be PROUD to be a teacher!

We must raise our sights by paying more attention to three R's, not the traditional ones, indispensable though they are, but three others.

The first of these is Resources, both physical and human. We are now experiencing such an increase in our population as will leave us with no alternatives but to abandon our basic principles of tax-supported education and to spend vastly more sums of money on our public school system than we have ever done before.

The second R should be called Resolution. We must resolve to demand more serious work from our students at all levels, but particularly at the high school and the university levels. Because learning is easier if it is pleasurable, we have fallen into the trap of believing that all learning must be made as painless as possible. The average human being recoils from all unnecessary intellectual activity, and all learning is NOT easy. If courses of genuine intellectual content are pushed aside in favour of those which amuse and entertain the student; if social and group activities, important as they are, are allowed to elbow out the academic aspects of secondary school work, then we, in my opinion, should be called to task for our insipid acquiescence in one of the worst forms of dilution of standards ever perpetrated on an unsuspecting and helpless school population.

I am not opposed to social and group activities but I think we should pay more attention to discovering precisely where man should act socially and where he should act individually. Too much attention is being paid to the social side of life to the detriment of the individual side.

Perhaps the parents are to blame for part of this problem of pleasurable participation? When parents complain loud enough about the amount of study their children are expected to do, they may be able to influence the powers-that-be to dilute the school curriculum. What they are really doing is betraying their own intellectual poverty.

When, however, they complain that their children are not being given the basic intellectual equipment which they should have, then we ought to raise our sights, rather than our eyebrows, and re-examine our aims, objectives and methods very carefully and very seriously. We must strike a balance between the old authoritarian discipline and complete freedom for the child. We should aim at giving him freedom commensurate with his acceptance of and ability to discharge his responsibilities.

The third R is Responsibility. We must all of us assume more responsibility; parents, teachers, legislators and the public at large must assume more responsibility for developing the educational system which will take

care of the needs of all children, the average and the extremes at each end. In these peculiar days we have a special responsibility to foster the training of those who promise to have special capacities. As our society becomes more complex, more embroiled in political and economic relations with other countries, leadership in all fields of human endeavour becomes constantly heavier and more demanding. Unless we can train the best minds of each generation and prepare them as best we can for handling all the affairs of our society, we shall run the risk of having those affairs handled by men who are less concerned about public welfare than they are about their own self-advantage. Unless able men lead us, unable men certainly will.

We must also, in our educational system, develop a greater sense of personal responsibility in our pupils. In pioneer days, from which we have only very recently emerged, the social responsibilities of the individual were clear, direct and obvious. Nowadays it seems much easier for the individual to shirk his responsibility, to let others take the responsibility for decisions which are transferable. I would like to see someone do a thesis in which an appraisal would be made of the general public's voting record over the past twenty years. The appraisal would show, I am afraid, that the majority of our people, good people in their own estimation, would be classed as criminally negligent, so far as the discharge of their responsibilities to Society are concerned. They are too lazy, too uninterested or just too dumb to vote on important issues like school by-laws. Not long ago, in one of our suburbs only 13% of the voters turned out to vote and voted down a school by-law in a place where the schools are bursting at the seams. We cannot allow this sort of thing to continue. If we do, then we are more negligent than those whose inertia we presently condemn.

More of us must raise our sights and do something, as professional people, to convince the public that it must take a more intelligent and perhaps a selfish interest in our educational system. I use the word "selfish" in its better sense, and for want of a more expressive word. There is no doubt in any of our minds that tomorrow's pattern is being shaped in today's classrooms. What is being accomplished today in each of our classrooms are the determinants in the progression or regression of our society. Our schools, then, if they are doing what they ought to do, should reflect the best parental interest in the welfare of children and also the general public's best civic interest in the welfare of society. Do they? We know perfectly well that they do not!

We cannot compare the products of our schools with the products of industry, the manufactured, man-produced articles that roll from an efficiently operated assembly line and which all have the same characteristics. Our schools should be constantly adjusting themselves to meet the needs of constantly expanding and increasingly complex community life. This continuous adjustment process is best accomplished when professional teachers and the general public work closely together. This co-operation is what is generally known as school public relations.

There seems to be a feeling among many teachers that there is something undignified, something not quite professional, about their participation in public relations programmes. In my opinion, this is one target area where all people interested in Education very definitely and deliberately must raise their sights. The term "Public Relations" really means what it

says, relations with the public. **No** organization, religious, professional or business, can avoid relations with the public unless it climb into an ivory tower and leave the world very much behind. Too many of us in educational circles have climbed into that tower and too many of us just can't seem to get back to earth.

It is absolute folly, in my opinion, to permit educational public relations to be a haphazard affair, to lack direction and to lack a director. Manitoba's most important public project, the education of all its children has no director of public relations and no public relations programme. Neither has Winnipeg's largest enterprise, its school system. I doubt if our University has one either. True, a little bit is done by this staff member and by that staff member but in a haphazard manner, hitting the target once in a while more by good luck and by the grace of God than by anything else. Such sporadic attempts can be totally lacking in vision. We teach children and young people. We need the goodwill and the material support of the taxpayer. If he likes our methods, if he knows what our educational goals are and if he trusts our ability, we will get what we need; his moral support, his ready audience and a generous portion of his tax dollar.

If our public is NOT in tune with us, we shall have to fight every step of the way, distrusted, overscrutinized, resisted and financially impoverished. If we already have the tax-payer's support, we want to keep it—which means we must keep it alive and keep it growing. If we are faced with the handicap of tax-payer resistance and if we are in earnest about our professional task, our first immediate educational problem is to overcome that resistance. But how?

That would be a long story, but public relations for school people, teachers, professors and administrators alike, should follow to some extent the line of training that is ordinarily given to salesmen. School people are resistant to the verb, "to sell", yet the injunction to **sell yourself** is fundamental to all education. It no longer implies selling your ego. Rather it means enlisting approval of your personal and professional purposes. Good teachers are continually selling themselves and their professional purposes. Successful salesmen depend directly for **their** livelihood on the cultivation of good public relations, for themselves personally and for their employers. I suggest that the techniques which good salesmen have evolved in their public relations programmes are worthy of careful study and application by teachers.

The astonishing fact is that our public schools have potentially the very best possible appeal to intelligent tax-payers. The schools can show immediately how the investment of more money will benefit their children. The school dollar is a gilt-edged investment rather than a tax imposition. **Everybody** benefits. We can show that the deployment and employment of enough dollars will benefit all of society materially in the long run, and sometimes quite quickly. It will mean dollars in everyone's pocket, comfort in their homes and security in our society. There never was a better investment than the educational dollar but too few people recognize that fact. It is our fault that it is not readily recognized. If we wish people to invest money freely in this enterprise of ours, we simply have to do as other people do. We must descend from the ivory tower, prepare an honest, enthusiastic prospectus, then get out and **SELL IT**. This is one

field of human endeavour in which we have failed for years. We have been unable or unwilling to raise our sights in maintaining a sound, uninterrupted programme of good public relations.

Let me make a suggestion or two about a good public relations programme which would encourage public bodies to work with us in partnership. We must put aside any proprietary interest which may have crept into our thinking and we must, without equivocation, accept the responsibility of interpreting Education to our public and encouraging the public to work with us. Only by working WITH us will the tax-payer realize that it is not Education but Ignorance that is expensive.

The heart of the public and teacher partnership today is the Federation of Home and School Associations. This is a most important time to be a parent or a teacher and to be a member of the Home and School Association. We are the people, parents and teachers, whose influence affects most pointedly the training and development of children and young people. We are guiding the first generation of children who must face the necessity of rebuilding the world for peace and freedom or, failing that, who might possibly witness the destruction of civilization.

We are guiding the first generation of youth who must learn to control the most powerful physical force ever held in the hand of man and to utilize it for the enrichment of humanity. We must raise our sights and we must face the fact that such guidance is impossible unless we can unite all the forces of Education, the Home, the School, the Church and all other community agencies into a firm, harmonious partnership, a partnership determined and dedicated on the premise that every child is a citizen-child whose destiny can be, and must be, sought in a free world.

None of this can be done by mere affiliation, by the paying of a membership fee. We must raise our sights and "go active" as they say in the Army. It is an active partnership we need, an understanding partnership. Understanding begets confidence. Where there is complete confidence, accomplishment is possible. Let us then, not only in greater numbers, but in greater personal and collective participation, ally and identify ourselves with the Home and School movement.

I would like to discuss for a moment the shortage of professional teachers. We initiated a teacher-recruitment campaign recently in this province. We did expect a substantial increase in the number of candidates for teacher-training. We did recruit more than we had been recruiting in previous years but still neither qualitatively nor quantitatively sufficient. Unless we raise our sights and make teaching a more attractive occupation or profession, the only answer will be even more crowded classrooms, poorly-trained emergency personnel, a falling level of educational accomplishment and a rising tide of unreasoning public criticism.

Obviously, the low level of salaries, coupled with very high work demands is one of the chief reasons why our young university and high school graduates turn their backs on teaching and take up other types of work. All over this province and all over this vast country, the average teacher receives less remuneration than does the average wage-earner in all types of gainful activity. Unless we are able to raise salaries materially and drastically, we shall never bring the necessary numbers of new men and women into the teaching profession. To quote an eminent judge, "The

tragedy is that when low salaries enter our schools they not only bring difficulties and worries to employees but they help bring about the mental starvation of the youth of this Province."

With these things in mind, we should do everything possible to attract to our ranks the best young people of Canada. In their preparation for teaching we can help raise the standards of our profession by raising our sights in four ways:-

1. we must recruit for quality,
2. we must offer more adequate programmes of preparation,
3. we must improve instruction; carefully thought-out instructional policy may well involve changes in both content and method,
4. we must provide many more courses for teachers-in-service, credit and non-credit courses alike, to improve both their personal competencies and the programmes they conduct in their schools.

With our present shortages, we too often hear it suggested that teachers do not require a university degree for teaching. Some say that we don't require the fourth year. Others wish to cut out the third year. There are others, sincere persons also, who say, "Fill the class rooms." There are still others who say, "Stick them in there, so long as the substitute-for-a-teacher can see the lightning and hear the thunder."

There are too many people who think that the teacher-shortage can be solved by lowering standards. The teaching profession, out of long and disillusioned experience with the policy of dilution of standards, imposed by governments, takes the opposite view. It maintains that qualified teachers in adequate numbers can only be secured for our schools and retained in them as high standards are enforced at professional levels.

We contend that the high-standards approach is the only effective long-range solution to the problem of the teacher shortage. Any other approach will simply produce a continuing and increasingly acute shortage of competent teachers.

Recent research studies, released by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, indicate that those States which have adopted higher standards have evidence that it has actually helped increase the supply of teachers.

Do high standards mean Grade XI clear or Grade XII clear? Here is the definition, taken from the report of the 1954 Albany Conference:-

"The meaning of the term "high-standards approach" is substantially as follows:- The adoption and enforcement of standards of selection, preparation, certification, in-service growth, and teacher welfare levels which will assure that those admitted to practice will be professionally competent teachers. In terms of preparation and certification requirements, the qualified beginning teacher is defined as one who has completed at least the bachelor's degree of approved preparation as a pre-requisite to initial regular certification. For full professional qualification and continuing, standard certification, there should be completed a fifth year of approved preparation."

There, friends, is the modern approach; the North American approach; today's approach.

The C.T.F. Research Division makes the same definite statement, based on research and not on eccentric opinion.

How much different is Manitoba from the rest of Canada?

How much different from the remainder of the North American continent?

It is about time that some of the self-appointed experts on Education did a little reading on modern trends, forgetting about far-off countries, far-off fields and far-off ancient times.

It is about time, too, that we stopped being tolerant with those about whose ill-informed statements we have shrugged our shoulders and laughed and smiled for years.

It is about time that we started drawing the attention of the public to the truth about these matters.

Actually, our only reason for having schools and teachers is to help children help themselves. I mentioned previously that the three R's are important. They are as important now as they ever have been. There are also other things that are very important today, such as:-

1. the ability to get along with others,
2. the ability to adjust to new situations,
3. the development of good citizenship habits and attitudes, and
4. the development of controlled emotional attitudes.

The ability to teach the three R's is not a simple skill which can be learned overnight. Neither is a person born with that ability. Someone many years ago coined an aphorism by saying, "Good teachers are born, not made." Whether that is an aphorism or not, I'm not quite certain. Of this I **AM** certain, the statement is definitely untrue. It may sound like a smart thing to say but, in my opinion, it is stupidly ridiculous and ridiculously stupid. Those of you who have been teaching for many years and who still find it necessary to improve your professional techniques and competencies will realize just how stupid and how ridiculous such an utterance is.

Even though one may be born with the desire to work with children, there are certain basic skills that have to be learned. These skills have to be acquired, assimilated and applied intelligently and scientifically to teaching and learning situations if our children and our older students are not to waste too much of their school time and too much of their lives in aimless drifting.

If this situation is true for the three R's, how much more true it is when we try to help children to adjust to each other, adjust to new situations, accept responsible citizenship and control their own emotions?

Any person with common sense and with a love of children will be a better teacher than one of equal ability without those two important attributes. But how much better that those who teach, who love children, and who have common sense should also have four or five years of professional education stressing principles of child growth and development, a great deal of practice teaching and mastery of the subject-matter to be taught? Our sights in this area have been so low for years that we have never come near to hitting the target.

Three years ago, Time Magazine recounted the story of a Canadian medical service hero. He had performed many operations in the Korean campaign for wounded Canadians and Koreans. The Navy was so proud of him that it forgot its traditional role of "the silent service" and fired many salvos of publicity broadsides and broadcasts about him. Then, suddenly, to their horror, they discovered that he wasn't a doctor at all. He was court-martialed, disgraced, discharged from the service and deported to the United States.

We are happy to think that his work as a surgeon was successful. Yet we made very certain that he cannot operate on us or on our families. We pass laws to make certain that such horrible situations cannot recur. Yet, in many of our public schools, we turn our children over to temporarily certified personnel with less comparable training and competence than had this young American hospital orderly who masqueraded as a doctor and whom we deported from our country. The moral is obvious.

I would like to say a few words about the teacher's sense of status in the community. A few moments ago, I generalized about the happy situation of some of our better teachers. All too frequently, however, in rural areas, the community places no limit on its demands upon the teacher's time outside of classes. Some communities also, unfortunately, recognize no limit on their right to pry into the teacher's private life, beliefs and activities.

One could not prove it statistically, but I have the feeling that this exposure to malicious gossip, this status of a second-class public servant, is perhaps as influential as low salaries in making good young people leave our profession. The community, by raising its sights, could do something about this problem of status. If it were undertaken seriously, it might pay rich dividends in improving not only the quantity but the quality of our personnel. Teachers do not wish any special status. They wish only to be regarded more like people.

Why can't teachers be as other people? Why do many of us continually insist that we be excessively prim, prudent and puritan? Why must we be either inordinately rigid or frigid? Why can't we live and get the chalk-dust out of our systems? How can we expect to teach children how to live and how to enjoy life if we, ourselves, have never lived and have never enjoyed it?

Of course, for a time, teachers who attempt to upset the public's present complacency and its current sense of values will immediately be dubbed as radicals. The prophet Micah was accused of being a radical when he rebuked the shallow insincerity of his day and insisted that God requires truth in the inward parts.

Jesus, also, was accused of being a radical. "Ye hath heard it said of all time . . . but I say unto you . . ." There He was, brushing aside traditions until they snapped like cobwebs. It was no wonder that the crowd that gathered around Pilate's Judgment Hall shouted their charge, "He stirreth up the people!" That settled it! Here was a dangerous radical, out to destroy the Roman hierarchy. Let him be crucified!

Paul kept talking about the power that Faith lets loose on our earth and the word he used was "dunamos"—dynamite, if you please. The authorities promptly clapped him into jail for subversive activities.

Are we, as a group, or even as individuals, dynamic? Quite frankly, we do not seem to be. There seems to be a lack of a hearty zest which should permeate all our projects. Let us take heart! Let us raise our sights and take heart when we find ourselves accused of radicalism. Radix means root. Getting at the root of things should be our business. The citizens of Athens found Socrates dangerously radical, so they put him to death. They don't do that sort of thing these days. They get at us some other way.

Let me register my firm conviction that Canada and Manitoba has no finer citizens than the members of the teaching profession. They are grossly under-paid—and it is chiefly their own fault—yet in our schools, colleges and in the University they remain hard-working, conscientious, thoroughly loyal to the best interests of our country and of our pupils. They are doing a magnificent job of training our youth with the facilities at their disposal. They are doing a much better job for the public than the public has a right to expect, when measured by its own meager contributions. Raise your sights—and your voices—a little more. Make the public aware of our problems. Be radicals, if necessary. Far more to be feared than **any** radicalism which may be preached is the trend to centralized control, the sort of tyranny that will force education into a straight-jacket of regimented conformity. Seek more academic freedom! Knowledge can be advanced only as we protect our right to question old ideas and to appraise the validity of new ones.

But this cannot be done if teachers confine their leadership to the classroom and to their professional organizations. It cannot be done if teachers remain cloistered in the classroom. They must raise their sights. They must step out into the community, shake the chalk-dust out of their systems and put all of their talents to use. If we have a strong, creative partnership in the community between parents and teachers, there are no problems that we cannot handle together. There are no goals to which we cannot attain.

You will realize that Education occupies a curiously ambiguous position in the affections of the public. On the one hand, despite the public's reluctance to spend much money on it, there is a profound faith that Education is the sovereign remedy for all of our problems and for all of our difficulties.

But there is another side to the coin as I have already mentioned. If our people have a profound faith in Education, they do not seem to have an equally profound faith in Educators, in teachers. The public tends to be patronizing toward men and women who undertake those professions which offer narrowly limited monetary returns. The old dictum that "those who can, do; those who can't, teach" has not yet disappeared from the pattern of our Canadian thought.

This reference to the other side of the coin is not a plea for any special status for our profession. It is mentioned once more to draw attention to an attitude which, in our own planning, we cannot afford to overlook. This condescension is a manifestation of the persistent and disturbing cult of mediocrity which is all too widespread among us. It is a cult in which we, ourselves, have sometimes acquiesced by our reluctance to sell ourselves, by our reluctance to raise our sights sufficiently high in our salary, pension

and other business negotiations. It is a cult completely without virtue and it is a deadly enemy to the progress of our professional organization. It seems as though we may never be free from mediocrity, but we should take definite steps to shatter all of the idols that have been erected to its honour and to smash whatever altars have been raised to its unholy worship.

Sometime earlier I spoke of academic freedom and I suggested that we seek greater academic freedom. What is this freedom that teachers seek? Is it freedom to keep the schools to themselves and for themselves—apart from the parents, community, or society?

No, that is not the freedom teachers seek. Teachers are part of the community. They value their place in that community. They neither expect nor desire unfettered control over the minds of the community's children. They believe that this great enterprise of Education requires vital and creative participation by the community as a whole.

When teachers talk of freedom, do they mean freedom to teach what they please, when they please, how they please?

No, that is not the freedom teachers seek. The books placed in the hands of young people, the lessons on their desks, the writings on the blackboards, the teacher's own words—these are not privileged. They are public matters. The school cannot—and should not, even if it could—arrogate to itself sole jurisdiction over the facts, the ideas, and the interpretations that are introduced into the minds of children. This is a composite responsibility of which teachers are but the custodians.

We seek, first of all, the freedom to do our best in an atmosphere which makes possible the best. It is the freedom to believe in, and to act upon, the need for enduring improvement and progress as a basic law of life. It is the freedom from stagnation. It is the freedom that provides elbow-room for inspiration, that sees Education not in terms of tight and fixed compartments, but in terms of the limitless possibilities of a free mind.

When our teachers talk of freedom, they think of the great Canadian diversity and the power inherent in it. They want Education to deal with this diversity and to reflect it.

The freedom our teachers seek has something to do with democratic equality and respect. They do not ask nor do they expect special privileges because of their calling. Neither do they believe that their position on the public payroll should mark them out as special targets for abuse or deprive them of status in the community. They take a proper pride in their profession. They do not believe that this profession should be regarded as fair game either by head hunters or by headline hunters.

The freedom we, teachers, seek has to do with the spirit of adventure. Nothing in human history is as fascinating or as wonderful as the growth of the human mind. Teachers believe in the infinite capacity of the mind for continued growth. They are aware that the world crisis is a deep and real one and that it represents more than a conflict between nations or between ideologies. It is a crisis that concerns the heart and the mind of man. It is a crisis that concerns man's ability to use his vast power for his own good.

The crisis poses the biggest question in human history today; can we make this earth safe and fit for human habitation? Our teachers do not

suggest that Education by itself can provide the answer to this question. But they do know and they do suggest that the part to be played by Education is a mighty big one. Finally, the freedom teachers seek is the freedom to serve the cause of freedom.

After all, with us rests the greatest responsibility of any single group in society, far greater than that of any other profession. Far greater than the profession of medicine, of law, of engineering, of any other profession.

Knowledge is difficult to achieve and the process of acquiring it is a slow and arduous one. The life of a human being is short. No sooner do men gain an insight into the ways of Society than they weaken and die. Their places are taken by infants who know nothing at all.

Unless the essential activities of Society and their underlying principles are taught to each new generation, the human community will descend to a dismal labyrinth of chaos and will eventually disintegrate. The transmission of this accumulated knowledge is the task of Education. Without it, human society could not maintain itself. History shows us that the failure of Education in the past has caused the downfall of many civilizations. We dare not let it fail this one.

I have dealt briefly with some of the problems arising in connection with our educational aims; our professional training and competence; the development of our resources; our public-relations programmes; the shortage of teachers; our acquiescence in the cult of mediocrity and I have attempted to outline what, in my opinion, is your challenge and your great opportunity.

I am reminded of old Rastus, who believed fervently in the power of prayer. However, there was one circumstance that kept bothering him. He remarked once, "When Ah prays to the good Lawd to send me a chicken, nuthin' ever happens, but, when Ah prays to the good Lawd to send me out *after* a chicken, boy, Ah always gets one!"

We, teachers, haven't gone out after our chickens as we might have done. If we believe that one of our major responsibilities is to improve the quality of the educational services provided for the children of our province, none of us can afford to be indifferent toward the quality of teaching in our schools. To be true to our own convictions, we must not only seek every opportunity to improve our own instructional techniques and practices but we must also encourage other teachers to improve theirs. We must become and remain disturbed should our colleagues fail to grow professionally in the art and science of teaching.

Furthermore, we must support pre-school and post-school workshops, conferences and clinics; moves for more adequate supervision, everything that will make us better teachers; we must demand more modern tools of instruction; the removal of unfair practices, frustrating working conditions and political servitude. We must do all of these things. We have no choice, if we are to improve the education of our teachers and so guarantee an improvement in the educational services provided for our children.

We must pledge ourselves to keep high and raise still higher the standards of the teaching profession. A profession indifferent toward its own standards can not long survive as a profession. Thus, indeed, any and all attempts to lower certification requirements must be vigorously and vehemently resisted; laws and regulations which will allow training

institutions to prepare teachers with a very minimum of adequacy must be corrected; a society which will accept as its teachers any person available in the community other than the very best qualified, with high standards of scholarship and professional training must be informed, very vigorously, of the tragic effect such a practice has had and will continue to have upon its children.

Other great social professions have grown simply by taking precautions to close their doors upon the undesirable and the unfit. Teaching, the mother and the greatest of all professions, must do likewise, and at once, if our members are to be worthy of emulation and if they are to be fit to supply mankind's greatest need—the need to learn.

We must raise our sights when facing all of these targets. We cannot afford to fail. We cannot fail, if we raise our sights. Indeed, we dare not fail!

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HOW MUCH EDUCATION ?

W. C. LORIMER

Superintendent of Schools, Winnipeg



AS A RESULT both of the increase in the birth rate which began with the start of the war and the increasing population due to immigration, Canadian schools are facing a tremendous program of expansion. With the elementary expansion program well under way, the need for new classrooms is now developing at the junior high school level and will shortly begin to emerge in the senior high schools and in the universities. The need is so tremendous and the implications so far-reaching that it would appear to be desirable to give some consideration to the whole matter on the bases of principles and purposes.

In the pioneering days and until recent years the main focus of attention, particularly in elementary and secondary education, has been on compulsory

school attendance in order to insure that the future citizens of our society would have sufficient basic education to become competent citizens. It is likely that attention on this aspect of education will never completely disappear, but it seems reasonable to suggest that it will not be as important in the future as it has been in the past. Changing economic conditions and changing points of view serve to keep most children in school these days at least until they reach a reasonable school leaving age. It does appear that some vestige of the problem remains in rural Canada where school leaving ages are lower than in the urban areas, apparently still based on the erroneous notion that anyone can farm and that education is not important to a farmer. It is suggested, however, that we have reached the end of an era and that the problem facing us now is how much and what kinds of education should be provided, or are desirable for our future citizens.

If we accept as basic purposes those enunciated by the Educational Policies Commission in the United States, namely, occupational preparation, civic competence, and personal development, a problem exists in

translating these objectives into working procedures. It is proposed to explore some aspects of this matter in the light of these objectives.

There have been many points of view regarding the responsibilities of the school in the field of occupational preparation. Of the two most common, one has held that the school has a major responsibility to prepare its pupils for a job, while the other has been that the school should provide a broad general education rather than develop narrow vocational competence. It is probably safe to say that in Canada today the trend is toward the latter point of view, that is, trade schools or narrow vocational preparation are neither as common nor as popular as they were twenty-five or thirty years ago. In most provinces, however, vocational courses are offered and a real problem exists in deciding how much and what kinds of vocational education should be included in these courses. It is clearly impossible for the schools to keep up in the field of machines in business and industry. They must limit themselves to basic training. The question is, how far should they go and to what extent should they develop vocational competence in a changing world? While it is true to say that our society is complex and changing rapidly, the indications seem to be that increasing complexity and more rapid change are ahead of us. It is suggested, therefore, that a substantial part of the educational program should be in general education which will stand the adult's of tomorrow in good stead as technological change requires the development of new skills.

It cannot be overlooked, however, that the educational program, in spite of all the critics, must have some interest and rationality to the students for whom it is developed. For young people who are striving to develop independence and economic self-sufficiency there is a tremendous appeal for an education which prepares them for a position and for many of them school can only have purpose in so far as it meets this need. As a matter of fact many of the students who are ready and anxious to pursue general education are those who are uncertain about their vocational choice and are interested in a general training which will still leave them adequate scope later when a selection has to be made.

One of the decisions facing our society is to determine at what age youth should be expected to begin employment. It is clear, of course, that there is no one age, since there are many variable factors. There can, however, be some agreement on a minimum age and on a reasonable maximum, except in isolated occupations. If trends in the United States are any indication we can anticipate that school leaving ages will shortly rise to about eighteen, since modern business and industry will not be particularly interested in engaging young people before this age and because of the disappearance of almost all the occupations now filled by unskilled labour. It is true, of course, that our present educational system envisages eighteen as being the completion of a twelve year program, but many pupils drop out before they have completed such a program. To a very large degree this drop-out problem has been solved in the United States by providing programs for pupils of all levels of ability in high school. While it is not suggested that we will follow the same pattern in Canada, it is probably reasonable to believe that within ten years at the outside, roughly the same situation will exist with regard to school attendance in Canada. This situation will necessitate changes in the high school program in order to produce a challenging one for all students and in order

to avoid the lowering of standards in the matriculation course which will be necessary if attempts are made to fit it to all pupils. It is probably reasonable to suppose, therefore, that in our society almost everyone will be able to proceed to high school graduation, although not all at the same level, and that in practice Grade XII or age 18 will become the minimum level of education.

It is suggested as being desirable that young people should begin to work and achieve economic independence at the earliest age possible. While there will be considerable variation depending on the choice of occupation, it is suggested that it is undesirable for young people to attend school beyond the time when they recognize purpose in such attendance. It is further suggested that there should be a reasonable limit for initial education and that perhaps post-graduate study is likely to be more profitable after vocational experience rather than before. In other words it is suggested that the logical extension of the principle that education is good is not that unlimited amounts of education are good, and that there is real need to examine practice to be certain that it is desirable to add more education to that which we already have. There is a question of cost, of course, in the terms of how much education society can afford. While this is an important consideration, it is likely that in Canada we can afford as much education as we wish to provide.

It can normally be accepted that university study will be necessary for many persons in our society. It is essential in some occupations; it is desirable in others. The major decision that is facing us is how much and for whom? In other words, should everyone who wishes have the right to go to university, or should the university be restricted to a small number who attend for a special reason? There seems no doubt that education in the United States is based on the premise that university education is desirable for all who wish to attend, while the other position is more generally held in the United Kingdom. Short of a careful and thorough study of this matter and particularly in the state supported universities in Canada, the likelihood is that if we have not already done so we will accept the position generally held in the United States, and the universities can prepare themselves for a flood of students whose main purpose will be to bridge the gap between youth and adulthood in school rather than in the world of work. It is important to remember that there is a tremendous pool of students of university calibre and interest in our society who are not now in attendance in such institutions. It is unquestionable that schemes must be developed to facilitate the attendance of this group of persons in our universities.

In the face of these large numbers of students, does part of the answer lie in the establishment of junior colleges? Is it desirable to consider an extension of common schooling for another two years to bridge the gap between youth and adulthood so that young people who are not university material in the true sense of the word will complete their education at approximately twenty years of age and then enter upon a vocation? It is the opinion of the writer that our cultural pattern in Canada will not permit us to organize our higher education on the European plan, and therefore that the junior college is a likely prospect in Canadian education. It is apparent, however, that the junior college is not an answer to all problems since in the United States university enrolments have continued

to expand at the same time as junior colleges have been established and developed. It is possible that for some time we, in Canada, may not be prepared to spend enough money to build universities to accommodate everybody. If this is the case, it is suggested that the universities will have to establish more rigorous entrance requirements and at the same time develop a more active program of seeking out and subsidizing through financial grants all those whose capacity and application warrant a university education, but who would be prevented from attending because of the cost. It will be inadequate and unsatisfactory if the latter cannot be accommodated in universities that are overcrowded with those whose purposes are not consonant with the purposes of the education they are seeking.

The establishment of junior colleges can reasonably be expected to add from one-sixth to one-quarter more to the cost of public education, since it is apparent that education at this level will be a fairly expensive undertaking. Present trends would seem to suggest that the junior college program would need to be a program of general education and no difficulties would be encountered in this direction with many of the students who would seek to attend such institutions. There is, however, even today, a real need for the development of technical institutes for boys and girls whose interests lie in this direction and for whom a substantial program of study is necessary in order to fit them for the sub professional categories of employment that exist and will probably continue to exist in our highly industrialized society. In effect, of course, if education is to go beyond high school, a junior college program is a considerable economy over a university course. It has the further advantage of being shorter so that young people can normally complete their education by the age of twenty.

Education for civic competence and personal development are essential in our society. As a matter of fact a compelling case can be made for the fact that the schools are not fulfilling their true purpose in the field of civic competence. It is suggested that there is an appalling lack of responsibility for and identification with the purposes of even a small community by many citizens. There seems to be an increasing tendency for citizens to expect all branches of government to provide everything that the individual needs without any effort on his part. There is a tendency for too many people to leave government to someone else. It is suggested that attitudes of this kind are corrosive in a democracy and that there is no other place where steps can be taken to meet the situation except in the schools. Perhaps more education is a part of the answer. Perhaps a reassessment of the program is necessary, but it is certainly one that exists at all levels of society both educational and economic. In other words, at the present it is sometimes difficult to see that those with more education are really doing any better job in terms of civic competence than are those with less.

The increasing use of leisure time makes it essential that personal development receive some emphasis in education. It is easy to see that time spent in this area leaves the school exposed to attack along the line that too much attention is being given to frills in education. It is easy too, for so-called frills to come too close to the centre in importance and attention. Even today, with the forty-hour week a reality, it seems apparent that there is a limit to the amount of time which people can employ successfully

as spectators in all forms of entertainment. It is probably not unreasonable to suggest, in view of the tremendous increase in hospital beds provided in mental institutions that this is another problem that requires attention. Some of the problems in the field of personal development, as with those in the field of civic competence, cannot be met successfully with high school students since the actual situations are a little too remote. Certainly in any extension of education into the junior college level serious consideration should be given to these two major objectives of education.

It has generally been recognized in recent years that adult education is a necessary supplement to complete a good educational program. It would seem reasonable to suggest that the need for adult education will develop and extend in the years ahead and that any extension of the day-school program will probably serve as a motivation to many people to seek further education in their adulthood. Even at the present many adult education programs include courses designed to upgrade individuals in their vocations, in addition to those which provide opportunities to be trained in new fields. As yet we are only scratching the surface of adult education in Canada. It is probably reasonable to suggest that adult education programs even when partially supported by student fees will add at least 5% to the cost of the total educational program.

In addition to adult education programs with vocational objectives it is reasonable to expect that there will be an increasing demand for programs of a cultural nature or for hobby type activities. This is a field which shades into recreation and it may be necessary to decide whether such activities are going to be under the direction of school authorities or recreational authorities. Already in many parts of the United States the schools have taken over the total recreational program on a twelve month basis. It is obviously neither impossible nor difficult for this to be done, but it will add considerably to the cost of education, and it will certainly be necessary for the public to be aware of what is being done if the financial implications are not to affect the regular school program adversely.

Finally, in this area, it would seem to be fairly certain that increased attention will be directed to all phases of adult education with considerable emphasis upon keeping people employable to the end of their productive careers. If the necessity to keep people employed is coupled with the reduction of the work week that is already being talked about because of the advent of automation, both society and education are facing a new and tremendous problem that can easily descend upon us before any solutions have been given even initial consideration.

What then is the answer to How Much Education? It is suggested that the first answer is planning. Those who can see the scope of the problem and have an understanding of the possibilities for solutions need to begin to grapple with it. It is suggested the universities need to begin first. There is not too much value in considering a junior college program in our society at present since all who want education beyond high school, and can afford it are able to secure it. What is to be the role of the university? Can ability and application, rather than financial means, be established as the criteria for entrance to university? What proportion of students do the universities see themselves admitting? Will there be a gap between the demand for education beyond high school and planned capacity?

If junior colleges are contemplated, under whose authority will they be established? The Department of Education? Local School Boards? Privately? If established will attendance be free or will fees be charged? If they are not established on a provincial basis what provisions will be made for financing them so that all students who wish may attend? Where will the capital funds be secured in a society that is still expanding its existing school systems?

If industry requires a flexible working force, can industrialists be expected to help to finance adult education? Can trade unions be expected to help finance such programs? Should a greatly expanded program of adult education be the responsibility of the state? Should student fees provide a substantial portion of the cost?

In recent years, have we gone too far in extending education and infancy? If high school includes Grade XIII and an undergraduate degree requires five years, followed by two or three years of post-graduate study, is age 27 a little late for the individual to begin to make his contribution to society? Do we waste too much time at the beginning for bright students and should we admit them to university at age 15 or if they remain in high school to 17 or 18, start them on the university program so that they might enter the undergraduate course at third or fourth year level?

It was suggested earlier that it may be trite to say that complexity and rapid change are features of our society. Perhaps we have marvelled too long at both phenomena and it is time for us to begin to act as though they were facts. The plans for tomorrow must be made today and nowhere is this need greater than in the field of education.

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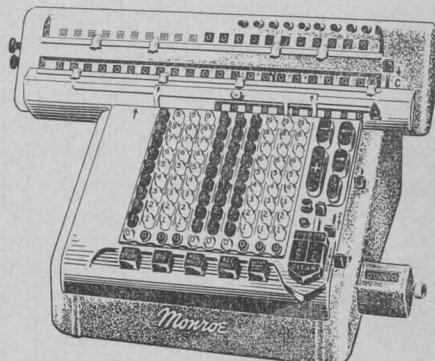
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RESEARCH ON HANDWRITING

GORDON T. MacDONELL

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Winnipeg



OVER the years much attention has been paid to methods by which the instruction of pupils in handwriting might be improved, but little attention has been paid to the underlying reasons why some individuals learn to write well and others do not, in the same teaching situation.

For example, Hildreth¹, after suggesting that disabilities in handwriting can be traced to two major sources, viz., eccentricities or deficiencies in the mental or physical condition of the writer and inappropriateness of instruction, devotes almost all her discussion to the second group, that dealing with instructional problems. Similarly, West, dis-

cussing research on handwriting and the literature dealing with the subject states:

"The lack of basic research in the field of handwriting still continues. Most articles are in the nature of general discussions, suggestions and aids to teachers, or reports of local modifications."²

The concern of this article is with what West terms "basic research", that is, with the psychological and physiological conditions underlying performance in handwriting. It describes one of two exploratory studies carried out by the writer in 1951 and 1952. The studies were exploratory in the sense that it was not anticipated that any final conclusions would be reached; it was merely hoped that avenues might be opened up to further investigation.

In the first study, the ten best and the ten poorest writers among 72 boys in grades 7, 8 and 9 of a small Winnipeg Junior High School were compared with respect to their mental, emotional and physical attributes. The second study grew out of the first. Because so many of the questions which arose in the first study led back to the period when instruction in handwriting is first started and to a consideration of the abilities which children possess at that time, the second study dealt with the question of writing readiness of kindergarten children. Some 70 children in the kindergarten classes of the same Winnipeg school were the subjects of the study.

The First Study—A Study of Some of the Factors Contributing to Differences in Skill in Handwriting among Junior High School Pupils. Intelligence and Handwriting

The first point examined was whether or not intelligence is a factor in the acquisition of skill in handwriting. On the evidence available here the answer would seem to be that in general bright children have an ad-

1. Gertrude Hildreth, *Learning the Three Rs*, pp. 514-515. Philadelphia: Educational Publishers Inc., 1936.

2. Paul V. West, *The Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 527. New York: MacMillan & Co., 1950.

vantage over dull children in learning to write well, but that the factors of motor skill and temperament are more important than the factor of intelligence in achieving excellence, and that, therefore, it does not necessarily follow that in any particular case a bright child will be or can be a skilful penman.

In respect to chronological age the two groups were nearly equal, the average age of the good group being 14 years and 5 months and the average of the poor group being 14 years and 2 months. The mental age of the good group was however considerably higher, 15 years 2 months as compared to 13 years 8 months. The good writers, in this particular collection of 20 boys, are as a group more intelligent than the poor writers, and this agrees with the common observation of teachers that the handwriting of a class of high general ability is, taken as a whole, better than that of a class of low ability of the same age and grade. There were, however, some notable exceptions. Two of the poor writers were boys of high mental capacity. Their mental ages were higher than the average for the good writers and the I.Q.'s were the two highest among the twenty. Obviously their performance in handwriting must be due to factors other than intelligence.

To reach the conclusion that in general bright children have an advantage over dull children in learning to write merely serves to raise the question of why this is so. The answer would seem to lie in an understanding of the nature of sensori-motor learning and of intelligence. This problem was left to the second study.

Motor Ability and Handwriting

The second point examined in the first study concerned the nature of the differences in motor skill in individuals. What are the particular motor skills which make for competence in handwriting and can they be developed by any techniques which can be devised? A series of tests was administered to the two groups in an attempt to explore differences in physical endowment. Some of the tests used were tests which have been used elsewhere; others were devised by the writer. Space does not permit a detailed description of the tests or of the results. The tests and their purposes were as follows:

	<u>Name of Test</u>	<u>Purpose</u>
No. 1	Tapping	To test speed of voluntary movement of large arm muscles.
No. 2	Card Sorting	To test speed of fine well co-ordinated movement of fingers.
No. 3	Circle Aiming	To test accuracy of voluntary movement of fingers.
No. 4	Parallel Lines	To test accuracy of voluntary movement of fingers
No. 5	Steadiness	To test steadiness of hand.
No. 6	Dart Board	To test gross muscular co-ordination
No. 7	Ball in Basket	To test gross muscular co-ordination

The first limited conclusion reached was that, with respect to the twenty boys studied, there was no significant difference in speed of voluntary movement. Both in the tapping test, which would seem to measure speed of voluntary movement of the large muscles of the arm and hand, and in the card sorting test, which was designed to measure

speed of fine well co-ordinated movement of the same muscles, the poor writers did slightly, but not significantly, better than the good writers. Speed of movement would not seem, on the evidence, to be a motor skill which bears any relation to skill in handwriting.

A second conclusion which must be drawn from the tests is that steadiness is not an important factor in explaining the difference between good and poor writers. With the twenty boys studied, the good writers showed a better average performance than did the poor writers, but there was no consistency in the performance of either group. There were steady hands in both groups and unsteady hands in both. It would seem logical to expect that, if steadiness were important to good performance in writing, all good writers would show a steady hand and all poor writers a shaky one.

A third conclusion which can be drawn, if it be conceded that the two tests used, throwing darts at a board and throwing a ball into a basket, do measure differences in gross muscular co-ordination, is that general physical competence of the type required for skill at athletic games has no relation to skill in handwriting. In both tests, the poor writers did, on the average, slightly better than the good writers, but there was again no consistency within the groups.

The two tests designed to measure accuracy of motor control of the muscles of the arm and hand, the circle aiming test and the parallel lines test, did, however, produce a result which would seem significant. With the twenty boys tested the good writers did markedly better than the poor writers and there was a general, though not complete, consistency within the groups. When it is considered that there was no marked difference revealed by the tests between the two groups of boys in speed of voluntary movement, steadiness or gross muscular control, but a very marked difference in the one physical attribute of accuracy of control of the fine muscles of the arm and hand, the conclusion must be drawn that there is some connection between skill in writing and accuracy of motor control. The conclusion is, of course, a tentative one. The groups of boys involved in the test would have to be retested to ensure that the same kind of result could always be expected, and other groups of good and poor writers would have to be tested and re-tested with these and other similar tests before any final conclusion could be drawn.

The results of the tests of accuracy of motor control open up other avenues of thought that deserve consideration and research. For the sake of clarity they are numbered in the brief discussion which follows.

1. Does one individual perform in a superior fashion in the circle aiming test, or the parallel lines test, or in any other exercise requiring accuracy of motor control, because he has superior vision? The hand holding the pencil must obviously be guided by the eye. The problem posed for the eye is not just one of seeing the circle or the parallel lines but of moving the eye from point to point in an efficient manner and of focusing the vision quickly and efficiently as the eye is moved. It would seem to be a matter of the efficiency of the small external muscles of the eye which control movement and of the power of adjusting the inner mechanism of the eye which has to do with focusing vision on a small area. It is possible that the efficiency of the eye in such tasks varies greatly from individual to individual, and that such variation has a bearing on the process of

learning to write well. Even if it be argued that the process of writing, once the skill has been acquired, is largely a kinesthetic matter involving the muscles of the arm and hand (it is true that one can write blindfolded), yet in the process of learning to write, before the skill has become set and while the muscles of the arm and hand are trying to copy what the eye has seen, the pencil must be guided in considerable detail by the eye, and an inefficient eye would seem to be a handicap to learning to write well.

2. Point 1 dealt with the possibility of the inability of the eye in poor writers to focus well. Is it possible that those who did poorly in the tests of accuracy of motor control and who are poor writers, perform indifferently because they have not got into the habit of focusing the eye in the most advantageous place when they are working—that their poor performance is due, not to any deficiency in the mechanism of sight but rather to a poor use of it? In the game of tennis, one of the secrets of success is learning to follow the ball with the eye until its impact with the racquet. The player who watches the place on the opposite court where he hopes to place the ball, instead of following the flight of the ball to his racquet so that he can guide the racquet accurately, has poor success. It is possible that poor writers look, when they are writing, at the general area around the point of the pen or pencil and that good writers focus their gaze close to the point of the writing instrument. The possibility deserves investigation, for if it proved to be true that a major difference between the performance of good and poor writers lies in eye habits, an avenue would be opened up to the rapid improvement of the poor writers since eye habits are capable of training.

3. Another possibility is that good writers are more accurate with the muscles of the arm and hand in performing the operations demanded in the circle aiming and parallel lines tests, not because they are endowed by nature with greater motor control, but because, in the course of acquiring greater skill at penmanship, they have developed greater motor control. Put otherwise, the possibility is that as a child learns to write, he gradually develops the particular skills which show up in the tests used in this study; and the good writer is an individual who has had the patience and persistence and good training necessary to develop such skills to a high degree. He obtains high scores on the tests of accuracy of motor control because he is a good writer. To prove or disprove such a theory, it would be necessary to give tests of accuracy of motor control to children at the age when they are beginning to learn to write. If it were found that good writers at that age were superior to poor writers among their peers in respect to accuracy of motor control, the conclusion would necessarily be that there is a difference in natural endowment in this respect among individuals, and that it has considerable influence on the ability to write legibly. A contrary result would, of course, lead to the opposite conclusion. Since the issue contains practical implications for teaching, further research would seem worthwhile.

Personality and Writing Ability

It is a common observation that one's attitude towards a given type of work affects the quality of that work. In commenting on the quality of handwriting of individuals, teachers commonly use the adjective careless.

Schonell,¹ commenting on what he calls a tidiness sentiment, points out its probable connection with handwriting.

In an effort to determine whether or not there were any marked personality differences between the good and poor writers, as groups, the writer made use of a rating scale for personality devised by Schonell. Nine personality traits were rated as follows:

1. Self confidence
2. Persistence
3. Assertiveness
4. Attention to detail
5. Sensitiveness to praise and blame
6. Concentration
7. Strength of self-regarding sentiment
8. General attitude towards school work
9. Emotional stability.

The good writers rated on the average significantly higher than the poor writers in the three traits of attention to detail, persistence and concentration. There were, however, individual exceptions. It seems logical to conclude that there can be a relationship between such personality traits as listed above and performance in handwriting. The exceptions are to be expected if it be accepted that quality of handwriting is influenced by several factors, personality, intelligence, physical aptitude and training, and not by one alone, and if it be accepted, as seems reasonable, that the proportionate influence of each will vary from individual to individual.

The practical implication for teaching, of the conclusion that there are personality traits which influence the performance of individuals in handwriting is that, given an individual whose poor performance is due, not to any physical incapacity to write well but to his attitude towards it, something can be done about the situation. The converse would also seem true that, given an individual with little physical aptitude for writing but with the desire to write well, little can be done about it, not that he cannot improve a little, but that his improvement will be limited by his lack of native ability.

A Glance at Abnormalities

It is now generally accepted that there exist cases of extreme reading disability in which the cause lies in the inability of the individual to retain in memory the visual impression of the printed or written symbol. Words are seen, but not recognized, even after hundreds of repetitions. The technical term most commonly used to describe the condition is "alexia". When the condition is congenital rather than acquired, the expression "developmental alexia" is used.

It is not so commonly recognized that there are comparable cases of extreme writing disability. Orton², in discussing the condition, refers to it as "developmental agraphia". The term is not applicable to the great

1. Fred J. Schonell, *Backwardness in the Basic Subjects*, pp. 317, 318. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd Ltd., 1948.
2. Samuel T. Orton, *Reading, Writing and Speech Problems in Children*, p. 99. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1937.

number of children, or adults, who are merely indifferent writers, but only to the comparatively few who find special difficulty in learning to write because of abnormalities, or disorders, in the nervous system.

Orton's general theory regarding all kinds of language disorders is that they are connected with the fact that normally each of the language skills and the more complicated manual skills in man are controlled from one of the two hemispheres of the brain—unilateral cerebral dominance—with a resultant tendency to foot, hand and eye preferences in motor acts; that a very long series of indiscriminate (as to side preferences) matings in the race has created gradings between the genetic factors leading respectively to left and right-sidedness, with the result that there are mixed, crossed and undecided patterns of motor preferences in individuals; and that similar intergrading may exist in the critical areas of the brain—which intergrading may be the cause of various developmental disorders of language, including writing.

It was a matter of interest to the writer to investigate whether or not any of the ten poor writers involved in the study could be considered to be cases of severe disability of the kinds described by Orton. Accordingly all of the boys were given a battery of common tests of handedness, footedness and eyedness. Additionally, in all the tests of physical competence previously described, both the preferred and non-preferred hand were tested. The tests disclosed no obvious condition of masked handedness, but there was evidence that two of the poorest writers might be manually inept because of mixed dominance.

The following observations are not based on the writers study, but are drawn from Orton, and are included here because of their bearing on the subject under consideration:

(1) Cases of severe writing disability do exist. That is to say, there are poor writers who are such because they cannot help it.

(2) Some very poor writers are such because they are using the right hand when nature intended them to use the left, or vice versa.

(3) In some cases the disability is related to the fact that the individual has no preference for either hand, and neither hand is efficient in manual operations.

(4) In some cases the manual disability is limited strictly to the one operation of writing.

(5) In some cases the disability is not one of forming individual letters but of blending the letters into sequences to make written words.

(6) The underlying cause in all cases seems to be confusion of function between the two hemispheres of the brain.

(7) Remedial measures are possible in some cases, but in others efforts at improvement are unavailing.

Conclusions

It must be stated again that the study has definite limitations and that the conclusions reached must be appraised in the light of those limitations. Some of the limitations are—that the number of boys tested was small, that they were all from one school, that there is no guarantee that the tests used did test what they were intended to test, and that there was no retest.

ing done to check against the first results. The justification for such lack of thoroughness is that the study was designed as a preliminary study, one which would point the way for a more thorough investigation of those factors which seemed, in the light of the first evidence, to offer the most fruitful leads. Recommendations for further study are listed among the conclusions.

A general conclusion arrived at is that intelligence, personality, physical competence and training can all have an influence on the quality of handwriting of an individual. A statement of more particular conclusions follows:

(1) In general, bright children are more likely to be good writers than dull children, but because the other factors of personality, physical endowment and training play a very important part, it does not necessarily follow that in any particular case a bright child will be a good penman.

(2) Personality traits such as attention to detail, persistence and concentration can influence considerably the quality of handwriting of an individual.

(3) The physical attributes of speed of voluntary movement, steadiness and gross muscular control have no relation to skill in handwriting.

(4) The differences which exist between individuals in their control of the fine muscles of the arm and hand play an important part in determining their skill in handwriting. However there is need for more thorough and extensive tests which will define more exactly the nature of the differences in skill and possibly suggest techniques for improvement. Studies of children at the age when they are beginning writing might be useful in exploring for more exact information in this area.

(5) It is possible that the poor handwriting of some individuals, which might be attributed to poor co-ordination between the eye and the fine muscles of the arm and hand, is due instead to a poor eye habit—the failure of the writer to focus his attention on or close to the point of the writing instrument. Research is recommended on this point.

(6) There are cases of extreme writing disability which are due to an imbalance of the nervous system. The disability may extend to most manual operations or may be sharply restricted to writing. Remedial measures are partially effective in some such cases but entirely ineffective in others.

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

N. V. SCARFE

Dean of Education, University of Manitoba



THIS article is an attempt to argue the case for homogeneous intellectual grouping of students in school. "Homogeneous" is used as a relative term to represent an organization of classes which is in opposition to "heterogeneous" intellectual grouping of children. Closely related to the issue is the question of the relative emphasis given in school to social growth and to the development of individuality.

The writer is opposed to "heterogeneous" grouping and over-emphasis on "social adjustment" because they lead to social conformity, equalitarianism and restriction of liberty, to reverence for confidence rather than competence, to

sophistication rather than real maturity, to life adjustment rather than life improvement, to identity of opportunity rather than equality of opportunity, to average or mediocre morality rather than high ideals, to quantity of facts rather than quality of persons. The present thesis claims that nothing good enters this world except in and through the **free** activities of **individual** men and women. Furthermore, it asserts that behaviour is not to be judged good just because it is social, but social only when it is good.

CONFIDENCE AND COMPETENCE

We may begin by referring to the hotly debated problem of measuring inborn differences of intelligence. There are those who rightly claim that it is difficult to measure inborn intelligence, that intelligence tests are by no means infallible or even exact, that cultural conditions and home background cloud the issue, and that other factors such as will power and determination also make a difference.

No one is proposing to doubt these claims as valid, but unfortunately such arguments are sometimes used not merely to discredit tests but to try to prove that very great differences in native intelligence do not exist, and even if they do that we should not try to draw attention to them, for "inequality is undemocratic". Moreover, so it is said, the differences do not matter much for there are plenty of examples where unscrupulous go-getting ex-ravets of mediocre ability in school own tremendous wealth in adult life and employ for a pittance those who were clever at school. In any case, they say, it is not competence that pays but confidence. If one only has charm, suavity and ability to win friends, then one can always secure better positions than those who are simply competent. Modesty, reticence, and humility will get one nowhere.

The advocates of this view tend not to like anything that cannot be "fixed" and feel that every human problem should be subject to amelioration, such as defective eyesight with glasses, or deafness with hearing aids. They constantly seek to "fix" lack of intelligence by "remedial

education", but it is the contention of this paper that intelligence is one of those attractive human attributes which cannot be "fixed".

Differential intellectual achievement is often blamed on to teacher inefficiency, pupil laziness or poor home circumstances. It is inconvenient to attribute it to lack of inherited grey matter. Education must apparently give everyone, however unintelligent, the chance of getting to the highest positions. If one does not get there it is pure laziness, or lack of effort, or poor teaching, never incompetence. A person needs more confidence in himself, more drive, more knowledge of the techniques of how to get on, of how to win friends or cheat enemies, not more native wit.

Intelligence, according to A. E. Wiggam, is what allows a man to get on without education, but, according to some, education is what allows a man to get on without intelligence.

Some educators think that it is a bad thing to distinguish people because of intelligence, but of course, if this argument is true then all separate schools for mental defectives are wrong. It is apparently all right to distinguish people by inherited physical disability, or inability to play games, or by age, but the most favoured distinguishing feature is that between the aggressive and peaceloving, or, in other words, the confident and the timid. Thus schools are, if such a theory is accepted, for developing confidence not competence.

The writer realizes, of course, that the equalitarian theory is based on justifiable fears of a rigid class society such as existed in Victorian Britain where there was an hereditary nobility, and a rigid social or cultural stratification of society based on birth or wealth, not intelligence. Schools that might set people apart because of birth or wealth are certainly undesirable. This does not mean, however, that everyone must call everyone else by a Christian name, or that only good social mixers, with a veneer of good fellowship, are essential to good society. The Canadian Medical Association has proved that the major characteristic of the chronic alcoholic is that he is a good social mixer.

Harold Nicholson writes a delightful piece called "The Riches of Embarrassment" in which he says: "It is surely discreditable, under the age of 30, not to be shy. Self-assurance in the young betokens a lack of sensibility; the boy or girl who is not shy at 22 will at 42 become a bore. For shyness is the protective fluid within which our personalities are able to develop. Let the shy understand, therefore, that their disability is not merely an inconvenience, but also a privilege. Let them regard their shyness as a gift rather than as an affliction. Let them consider how intolerable are those of their contemporaries who are not also shy."

Good democracy does not mean that everyone must feel as competent as everyone else to judge every issue. It does not mean that it is unnecessary to show special respect for anyone. Unfortunately, in a world where social equality is overstressed those who show respect find themselves waiting behind those who selfishly push ahead. In such a situation the more aggressive and the more arrogant one is, the more likely one is to forge ahead and therefore the smarter one is judged. So if only the relatively unintelligent can neutralize or equalize intelligence differences it will give the arrogant and the unscrupulous an equal start with the intelligent; or even better, for the "foolishly" intelligent people tend to

believe in fair play, honesty and are peculiarly in favour of peaceful, thoughtful procedures. They think before they act, they even consider others first and, of course, that nicely leaves them behind in the race for wealth. Unfortunately, wealth still distinguishes people and gives them excessive power, but apparently this is condoned for it allows unintelligent people to achieve eminence. All this is the result of confusing social equality with intellectual equality in school, of confusing confidence with competence.

Heterogeneous classes are defended on the basis that an unintelligent child will feel inferior if taught in a separate group. He must, apparently, be made to feel equal to and as competent as the highly intelligent. It is also claimed that segregation leads to intellectual snobbery on the part of the bright children. Both these statements are erroneous, for it has yet to be proved that constant low achievement by a dull boy in comparison with brilliant achievement by a bright boy in an heterogeneous class is less wounding to a sensitive child than being segregated into a class designed to nurture his particular abilities and aptitudes, and in which he is not overshadowed by his intellectual superiors. Snobbery is not characteristic of brilliant people or children. Snobbery is the characteristic of the mediocre who merely think or pretend they are bright.

SEGREGATION AND MORALITY

The word "segregation" has come to have a bad meaning. In this article the word is used to connote only a separation of children into intellectual groups so that all profit more than they would if left heterogeneously grouped. The idea of segregating simply because of creed, colour or social class is entirely against the spirit of this article. Nothing which suggests unfair discrimination is intended or implied. Ability grouping only is being discussed.

The result of the herding together of an heterogeneous mass of children is to get an average heterogeneous education only and not fine social cohesion at all. The bright few do not have to work and they learn how to get by with a minimum. Eventually they become bored and conform to the average because they never use their grey matter adequately. In fact they do their best to conceal their intelligence because individual distinctiveness in intellectual or academic matters is supposedly antisocial. This attitude does not of course, lead to high moral standards.

The dull give up work, too, in the end, because they cannot understand or keep up and, in any case, they know the teacher will eventually neglect the progress of the rest of the class to cram them with memorized jargon. The rest, having learned enough to pass the grade, finish work early in the year, and they cannot go ahead until others have caught up. Unfortunately, the tendency is to make all children learn the same things in the same way in the same time, otherwise, so it is said, unfair discrimination raises its ugly head.

Nobody, therefore, works much and so standards fall, but it is not academic standards only that fall behind, it is also ethical standards and attitudes to work which decline. Everyone tends to conform to an average or less than average morality and no one seems to see much point in striving towards the best or the highest in cultural values. All strive to the average.

Joseph Krutch of Columbia writes forcefully on this same topic: "The ideal now persistently held before the American citizen from the moment he enters the kindergarten is a kind of conformity more or less disguised under the term adjustment. Normality has almost completely replaced excellence as an ideal." Similarly Hilda Neatby lashes out when she derides "the fatuous worship of the common man, not because he is a man but because he is common."

It may be true that social maturity and high standards of behaviour correlate very highly with superior intelligence, but the great point is that behaviour problems are fewer and standards of morality are usually much higher with homogeneous than with heterogeneous groups, no matter what the intelligence. The way to raise moral standards with delinquents is to segregate them in a kindly reform school. Even thieves have honour among themselves. Standards can be raised in any **like-minded** group, but in an heterogeneous group, tensions, competition and obvious differences tend to bring out the worst rather than the best in people, particularly the young. Prejudices reign supreme over intelligence, and so real understanding is difficult, though a superficial veneer of tolerance may be forced on them. Children learn highest morality from teachers and adults, not from each other. Teachers work best with homogeneous groups.

MAJORITY AND MINORITY VIEWS

There are always a few loudly quoted exceptions to these arguments, but a school system does not have to be regulated **primarily** to avoid injustice to a few exceptions. It has to work well for the majority first. Just because the intelligence test may accidentally make mistakes about a few at the borderline is no reason to condemn it. Just because there is a strong vocal objection by the few parents whose borderline children do not gain admission to the "A" or "B" or "C" stream in a school, is no good reason for ignoring the majority who are satisfied. Safeguarding the rights of minorities does not mean ignoring the welfare of majorities.

Opposition to selective grouping has certainly not come from poor people, particularly those with clever children. The opposition comes from a few well-to-do folk with not very clever children.

American Education exemplifies the mistake of taking too much notice of the vocal complaining minority, especially those with political influence, and too little notice of the uncomplaining and satisfied majority. There seems to be a constant and to some extent laudable search for a perfect **mechanical** system without flaws or injustices, and so rules, laws, regulations multiply while humanitarianism disappears. The majority who are satisfied become more and more restricted, constrained and mistrusted, so that all are reduced to a common level. Because one person breaks rules, then all must be subject to more restrictions, and no one is trusted to be guided by conscience. Because no one is trusted, so all become untrustworthy, since there is no point in exercising self control. In opposition to this the writer contends that it is far better to rely on the good conscience of the majority than on too many governmental regulations, even though such freedom is open to abuse, for as Sir Winston Churchill says, "The only guide to a man is his conscience." In other words, liberty is more important than equality.

INDISCRIMINATE HERDING AND SOCIAL GROWTH

The influence of group pressures, of mass media of communication, of standardized procedures and of herd hysteria is one of the greatest menaces of our time. Yet the major idea of the heterogeneous class is that all types of minds shall be herded together in order that all differences shall be ironed out and one pattern accepted. Since it is said, without regard to the facts, that we shall have to work and live with everybody in adult life, so it is erroneously claimed we must learn at school to work and live with everybody. It is assumed rather fondly that a tolerant mutually sympathetic understanding of a social nature will be best developed by muddling all together heterogeneously into one school. This is one of the greatest fallacies of our time. People do not learn to respect or love one another simply by being herded together indiscriminately. Large resorts during a public holiday are not the best places to learn brotherly love or respect for human dignity. Crowded trains are not fine situations for social adjustments. Factory life does not necessarily breed mutual respect and tolerance.

The place where there is greatest animosity between negro and white is in the south or in Chicago where they are juxtaposed. French and English are more bitterly antagonistic in Montreal than almost anywhere else in the world.

It is also not true that the British, who have homogeneous school classes, are less kindly disposed to their poor or underprivileged than are the Americans with heterogeneity. It is not true that coeducation has led to less divorce, wife beating or sexual perversity in U.S.A. than in England. Men and women do not understand each other any better, nor do they have greater mutual respect for each other in U.S.A. than in England. Mr. Attlee is not antisocial because he was raised at a private, highly selective school. Mutual tolerance and sympathetic understanding are, obtained through education, study and understanding, i.e. through the intellect, not through sentimentalism. Mere contiguity may breed contempt. Thus toleration is learned where education of the mind can go on most efficiently, not in places where all congregate indiscriminately.

It is not true that the welfare and happiness of an individual depend solely on successful social living. Individual serenity is, at least, equally important. According to Prof. Meldenhall of Yale, "The British have mastered the problem of educating for intelligent citizenship better than have the Americans." This was clearly evident during the blitz in London in 1940. It is demonstrated by the fact that England has a social welfare system ahead of U.S.A. This is so in spite of the comprehensive schools and heterogeneous classes in U.S.A. and the separate schools and homogeneous classes in Britain.

THE INTELLECT AND SOCIAL GROWTH

International understanding, sympathy and tolerance are achievable only through knowledge, study, thought and considered attitudes. We cannot all go and live heterogeneously with all the nations of the world. And yet it is possible to understand, respect, sympathize and co-operate with other nations without living with them. In fact, as with mothers-in-law, it may be easier to do this if one does not live with them.

Once we have developed an intellectual "mind-set" prepared to like and understand others, then a visit to their land and a closer acquaintance with them will enrich and enlarge our sympathy, but the important thing is to achieve first the **initial** preparedness to be tolerant, the initial open minded curiosity, the initial absence of a prejudiced mind. Education about people, not with people, and trained thoughtfulness are the necessary prerequisites. In other words, intellectual training in school is the first essential. This is not the same as academic training. It simply means training children to think for themselves and by themselves, to delay judgment in absence of evidence, to reverence reason above emotion, but not to ignore or exclude emotion. Put in another way, schools are primarily for intellectual training, not for social training, or for emotional free expression. This does not mean that social growth or mental health are unimportant, far from it, but that they are secondary, are dependent on, and result from, primary concern with the intellect. The better the school attends to its primary business of training thoughtful people the better will it serve the cause of social sympathy and emotional maturity. A. S. Neill's contention that if we satisfy the emotions then the intellect will take care of itself is patent nonsense. Sir Cyril Burt takes the opposite view and he has yet to be proved wrong. Grayson Kirk, President of Columbia, writes: "It is all very well to try to adjust young people to society, but it is far more important that they be given some vision of the nature, ends and purposes of that society . . . The primary purpose of school is not to increase the earning power but to enrich the human spirit. . . . The basic purpose of education is mental development."

If, therefore, intellectual development is the prime aim of school, and if there is no artificial attempt to divorce emotion from intellect, then there can be little valid argument against the claim that efficient teaching takes place best when children are homogeneously grouped according to intellectual abilities. This does not ignore home background, emotional blocks, will to work, or any of these important things. To say that intellectual prowess is the chief means of classifying does not suggest that it is the only criterion, or that other factors are ignored, or that it is inflexible. It does mean that a few emotional deviates are not allowed to condemn a system which works perfectly well for a majority of balanced individuals.

Bertrand Russell has a fine comment on the problem of grouping children on an intelligence basis: "There is an idea that rubbing up against all and sundry in youth is a good preparation for life. This appears to me to be rubbish. No one, in later life, associates with all and sundry. Bookmakers are not obliged to live among clergymen, nor clergymen among bookmakers. In later life a man's occupation and status give an indication of his interests and capacities. I have, in my day, lived in various different social strata—diplomatists, dons, pacifists, gaol-birds, and politicians—but nowhere have I found the higgledy-piggledy ruthlessness of a heterogeneous set of boys. Intellectual boys, for the most part, have not yet learnt to conceal their intellectuality, and are therefore exposed to constant persecution on account of their oddity. The more adaptable among them learn, in time, to seem ordinary and to put on a smooth and vacuous exterior, but I cannot see that this is a lesson worth learning. If you walk through a farmyard, you may observe cows and sheep and pigs and goats and geese and ducks and hens and pigeons, all behaving in their

several ways: no one thinks that a duck should acquire social adaptability by learning to behave like a pig. Yet this is exactly what is thought so valuable for boys at school where the pigs tend to be the aristocracy.

The advantages of special schools or separate classes for the cleverer children are very great. Not only will they avoid social persecution, thereby escaping much pain and emotional fatigue and all the lessons in cowardice which cause clever adults often to prostitute their brains in the service of powerful fools. From a purely intellectual point of view they can be taught much faster, and not have to endure the boredom of hearing things that they already understand being explained to the other members of the class; moreover, their conversation with each other is likely to be of a sort to fix knowledge in their memory, and their spare-time occupations can be intelligent without fear of ridicule. Nothing can be urged against such schools except administrative difficulties and that form of democratic sentiment which has its source in envy." The same arguments apply to the separation of those who are average from those who are less than average. All evidence goes to show that mentally retarded children do better in classes specially suited to their needs than when placed in heterogeneous groups.

EQUALITY OR IDENTITY OF OPPORTUNITY

Another fallacy is that which confuses equality of opportunity with identity of opportunity. No one doubts that good opportunity for a farm worker is not an equally good opportunity for a dentist, yet many claim that good training for a slow learning child is good training for a brilliant boy. Few people will doubt that an excellent opportunity for one with exceptional artistic talents is not equally excellent for one who is colour blind. Yet even this is disputed where the heterogeneous idea reaches its logical absurdity. The fear of class distinctions, based on accidents of birth and wealth, tend to develop a wish to obliterate all distinctions, particularly the feeling that one person is more intellectually distinguished than another.

It is wrong, apparently, to have some children realise that they should never try to become cabinet ministers, civil servants or business executives, and that they will lead happier and more satisfying lives by becoming sailors or garage hands or shop assistants. It is wrong, apparently, to put them in a class or school where all are similarly able children, where the work is suitable in content and method to their needs, interests and abilities and where they are able to make relatively successful and satisfying achievement, even competitively.

We know perfectly well, of course, that the eventual material rewards for different types of homogeneous school training will vary in adult life. We know perfectly well that, at the present, gross injustices occur, but in a democracy, as distinct from a communist society, there will always be differential rewards and differential privileges in proportion to the value of the contribution each can make to the general welfare. Our modern governments would, however, be better advised to concentrate on elimination of injustices rather than of differentials. The gravest injustices occur where clever people have inferior jobs and dull people very responsible ones.

Social justice is not provided by herding all together but by making sure that as few as possible of the nation's clever children at all levels miss the chance of meeting a really challenging course of study, no matter what the economic or social circumstances of their home. In addition, protection should be given those who cannot manage a highly academic type of curriculum and formal teaching methods by giving them a chance to have educational facilities suited to their age, aptitudes and abilities, that is, equality of teacher skill and similar teaching facilities.

Equality of opportunity means giving every child an equal amount of teaching time from equally qualified teachers. It means the right of every child to twelve years of schooling, which is not the same as a right to a XIIth grade standard of education. It does not mean devoting most of the teacher's time to dull children and ignoring those who are clever.

HOMOGENEITY PROMOTES SOCIAL GROWTH

Homogeneous grouping of children into intellectual streams for continuous progress through school does, in fact, give us heterogeneous socio-economic school classes, for no level of society has any monopoly of brains. The advantage is, of course, that the children thus selected are like-minded though socially diverse. In adult life, groups are always like-minded intellectually, whether professional, business or social organizations. They have to be able to understand each other easily, and enjoy each others company. Education, like eating, is much more enjoyable and efficient in the company of like-minded friends with similar standards of conversation.

It may be true that all children are social, that they all crave for acceptance and social approval, and that they need to share and co-operate. Of course, children seek approval but from a selected few only. They do not need, seek or welcome approval from all or everyone.

THE HERD INSTINCT

Heterogeneous grouping is a pandering to the herd instinct of fear and protection where numbers are very important, for there is safety and anonymity in numbers. As the price of protection it is necessary to conform to the pattern of the group, and to accept the common standards. Artificial stimulation of group participation, of community consciousness, of slap-happy gregariousness is a tremendous sham. It is the result of fearful conformity, a lack of faith in the self. Serenity and poise in the face of disaster or opposition are all too rare, but rarer still is the individual soul who is willingly different from the majority when that majority becomes decadent.

Robertson Davies in Saturday Night, writes: "If Johnny isn't a gabby brat, a grinning little back-slapper, one must assume that he is doomed to illiteracy . . . Money should be spent on the development of curious minds instead of efforts to mash young individuals into well adjusted groups—always supposing, of course, that the purpose of education is to produce something other than happy sheep."

It is true that children are naturally gregarious and group conscious, but this is nothing to be proud of. It is, in fact, something to use and modify. The weight of numbers, the weight of the herd soon destroys

individuality, initiative and originality unless education counteracts the tendency. Desirable individual differences are often eliminated when the social aims of education are over emphasized. When everyone must hew the party line, the group or the party soon becomes dominated by the most aggressive or the most unscrupulous, and groups become the dupes of Hitlers who have studied the art of cheating people.

Education that does not train future citizens to resist the overwhelming pressures of groups, to understand the trickery of propaganda, will automatically breed a nation of yes-men, of conformers and joiners. It is necessary to be happy alone, to develop spiritual integrity, to develop the individual serenity of the soul. We need to learn to think privately. It is good to be different, it is good to be courteous and reticent, it is good to be original and creative. As Mortimer Smith says, "We must not produce individuals who find their own minds unpleasant places in which to spend their leisure." Education must foster the development of individuality for the individual is sacred.

DEWEYISM

There are many critics of heterogeneous grouping who blame everything that is reprehensible on John Dewey. This is most unjust for although he said that "education must concern itself with the whole child" he did not say that all aspects of a child are of equal importance. He went on to show that the intellect was fundamental and influenced behaviour. "Ultimately it is the absence of intellectual control, through significant subject matter, which stimulates the deplorable egotism, cockiness, impertinence and the disregard for the rights of others apparently considered by some persons to be the inevitable accompaniment, if not the essence of freedom."

He also came down very clearly on the side of intellectual development when he said that "the sole path to successful learning and teaching consists in centering on conditions which promote, exact and test thinking."

Similarly Dewey said, "Education is a social process" but he did not say that all educational processes should be social in nature, or that since the extrovert personality functions more easily in social situations than does the introvert, an effort should be made to help all children to become extroverts. It is true that an extrovert makes a better salesman or teacher than an introvert, but not all children are destined to become salesmen or teachers. Some education only in social. Moreover social education is the primary function of the home and the community, and a secondary function only of the school.

Arthur Bestor writes: "While the school may try to minister to the needs of society, to children from poor homes and to the underprivileged, it must not neglect its primary duty. That other agencies, such as home, church, fail is no reason for a school to fail in its primary duty."

The views of this article are not, therefore, entirely in sympathy with those offered by the A.A.S.A. 25th yearbook which says: "Education of the individual is preparation of his best self in the higher loyalty of serving the basic ideals and aims of our society." Counts, Rugg and Kilpatrick put the same idea in stronger terms when they say "Education is indoctrination on behalf of a planned democratic society." Here is the old idea

that present society or some planned and static society is good and to it all must conform.

It seems difficult for those who argue this way to see the difference between imposed social conformity and voluntary co-operation based on conscience.

Few of us wish to go the extremes of Schopenhauer when he says: "Rascals are always sociable, and the chief sign that a man has any nobility in his character is the little pleasure he takes in others company." There is enough truth in it, however, to act as a warning against those who wish to over-emphasize social timidity and crush out individual courage.

INTELLECT AND EMOTION

The other important element in the argument is the social view that emotions are of greater importance than the intellect, massaging the personality more important than sharpening the wits. It is agreed that we cannot separate emotions from intellect, but we do not need to confuse them. We are able to recognize different elements even if they do not operate independently. Moreover, we are able to say which elements we wish to foster and which to control, and whether one should influence or control the other as the interacting organism develops. Thus the writer's suggestion that individual intellectual progress is fundamental implies that good social behaviour should result from fine personal development, given good teachers.

It is often claimed that the whole child must be developed not merely his mind. What, we may ask, is so mere about the mind?

Education is achieved through training folk to think for themselves, it is not achieved solely by cohabiting in any one school. Thinking about our social heritage is good and produces better results than simply herding people together. Civilized social living is not the same as promiscuity. It is voluntary co-operation not group coercion. It implies freedom not to co-operate with undesirable groups.

International understanding, sympathetic social accord, or good family relations depend more on intellectual study and understanding than on any indiscriminate herding. Naturally no good teacher leaves the study simply as a mental exercise. Intellectual effort loses much of its value if there is no deliberate and conscious effort to carry over intellectual conviction to the feelings and emotions, to behaviour and character. Wisdom does not become virtue automatically, but active commitment and attachment depends on contemplative and detached thoughts. Moreover it needs a good teacher and a consciously aware pupil to effect the carryover. But it can be done, and has been done, by good teachers throughout all ages, not least by the Greatest who taught in parables which demanded serious intellectual effort from His selected group of disciples in order that they might achieve wisdom.

CONCLUSION

That education is of most worth which treats individual personalities as sacred, which encourages each to make the most of his own special

potentialities, particularly his mental endowment. The overwhelming problem of living in the modern world is the swamping of personality by mass media and group pressures. The greatest need is for individuals who can think critically for themselves and by themselves, who are not deceived by political chicanery, newspaper propaganda, or commercial advertising. Every citizen needs to read intelligently, look critically, listen carefully and live virtuously. While his social ethics may be conservative, traditional, even uniform, and should be learned mainly from parents and priests, his intellectual development at school should be free, adventurous, creative and different. Since schools are mainly for intellectual effort applied through ordinary subjects to modern problems, in the seclusion of a protected atmosphere where reasonable understanding can precede emotional involvement, so schools should be organized on that basis with the maximum facilities for mental growth, where teachers can proceed with the greatest speed and efficiency with like-minded groups and so maintain high ethical standards. This may happen in any school but it happens best in separate classes for different mental levels.

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NEEDS AND DIMENSIONS OF RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

HARRY L. STEIN

Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Manitoba



RESEARCH in Educational Administration and Supervision may be approached in two ways: (1) by accepting present day philosophy and theory of administration and supervision and on this basis, surveying, analysing, and evaluating present practices; (2) by rejecting present theory, proposing new theory, and setting up experimental designs to test the worth of the new theory. Both kinds of research are needed in the fields of administration and supervision but the emphasis in the past has been on the former, while in later years bold adventurers have tread foot on the newer fields.

At the outset we must bear in mind the simple, though not often recognized fact that educational administration and supervision are not ends in themselves. Schools are not built for superintendents, or inspectors, or secretary-treasurers or janitors. They are not even built for teachers, although a surface examination of the literature would sometimes lead us to believe that the most important thing in the school is the teacher. Schools are built for the education of children. The function of educational research, then, is to seek out ways and means of carrying out the educational process effectively and efficiently, making use of the available resources to the full, without waste of either human effort or any of the products of human effort, or that evanescent element known as time.

Now, if we accept this basic premise, we can examine each of the approaches to research in administration a little more closely. In the "survey, analyse, and evaluate" type of research we usually say to ourselves something like this: Here is a set of objectives which have been our goal for some time; and here is a set of practices we have been carrying on in an effort to reach these objectives. If we feel that we are not happy about the total situation we may either re-examine the goals to see if they are what we really want or we may re-examine the practices to see why they are not helping us to reach our goals. In either case it is necessary to be aware of the fact that an examination of goals or practices set up under one set of circumstances, in one frame of reference, or by one set of individuals cannot always be fairly evaluated in another set of circumstances, in another frame of reference, or by another, or even the same set of individuals. When the element of time has impinged upon a situation, it is extremely difficult to evaluate the effort of the time element itself, and yet it should be taken into account.

To illustrate this point, let us look briefly at some of our administrative and supervisory practices to see what factors are of importance in their

effectiveness, or lack of it. Consider the matter of our class organization—the chronological age-grade pattern, the single room per grade, under the control of a single teacher for a single school year, and the organization of the curriculum to conform to this pattern. What are the factors which brought about this organization? Have we not merely copied the organization of our European counterparts and maintained the organization simply because of inertia. Have we accepted the hypothesis that the natural division of time into years, months, weeks, days and hours are the governing elements which control the pattern of child development? And has not much of the research conducted in educational administration and supervision accepted this hypothesis without question, when possibly some other hypothesis might be tenable, such as a broader grade organization conforming more appropriately to the more inclusive and better defined periods of child development?

Frankly, I do not know. I merely use this illustration to make the point that the dimensions of research in administration should include an examination and testing of some of the hypotheses and assumptions upon which our organization and administration are based.

In Australia, for example, it has been assumed for many years that a highly centralized administrative system for education is the most effective means of causing the educative process to be carried out in the schools. There are Australians who are raising serious questions about this assumption.

Here in Canada, it has been assumed that the most effective agency for determining the curriculum needs of the schools is the Provincial Department of Education, albeit these bodies have utilized relatively democratic means of arriving at their decisions. Their decisions have, however, been decisions, and the resulting curriculum has, with some exceptions, become quite mandatory.

It has been assumed that all schools need a certain kind of inspection and supervision, looked upon by many people, particularly teachers, as a kind of policing to see that the rules are obeyed, in much the same way as meat packers, plumbers, building contractors and boarding house keepers are inspected and supervised with the inevitable rubber stamp as the end product of the inspection. Now we all know that the end product of inspection is not the rubber stamp but the quality of the product under inspection and the safe-guarding of public interests. Is there not a need, then, for research which will evaluate the attitudes that various individuals have towards the assumptions upon which our administrative organization is based?

It might be appropriate also, at this point, to paraphrase Harry A. Grace's comment appearing in the American Psychologist for May, 1955, p. 218. Making the appropriate substitution his comment would read "Educational administration proceeds as if there were no natural link between it and education." In closing his comment, Grace says, "When we embark upon educational research haphazardly, each of the variables—teacher, material, learner, and process—may not be adequately controlled. To avoid the pitfalls of misspent effort and mistaken conclusions, we need a theory of education we can test."

In our first type of research in administration and supervision, then, the great need is to raise questions about basic assumptions, and to

evaluate the assumptions, possibly by survey methods, and to revise our theory in the light of the evaluation. The fourth dimension of such research might then be the factor of time which may have brought about considerable change in the original frame of reference in which our administrative and supervisory practices were conceived.

This brings us to a consideration of the second approach to research in administration and supervision I mentioned at the outset, namely the experimental design approach in which the experimenter would endeavor to set up new, or revolutionary hypotheses and to test these hypotheses by using scientific controls rather than survey techniques. Experimental designs of this kind have been tried but rarely evaluated on an adequate basis. For example, would co-operative teaching as opposed to the one-class one teacher situation produce better learning outcomes? An experiment such as this could be carried out only in a large administrative system because of the sampling problems involved. In the area of supervision might it not be possible to compare the "on call" approach to supervision against the routine approach? Obviously, bold experiments such as these might entail considerable difficulty and expense, but they might serve to answer some of the questions that have been raised by theorists, the answers to which will continue to remain in the realm of conjecture until the hypotheses are adequately tested.

What I have said has been meant only to introduce the discussion. I have purposely omitted lengthy lists of needed studies since such lists have been published in reputable journals, such as **Educational Administration** and by such authors as Good, Barr, and Scates. Certainly there is need of research in administration appropriate to the Canadian scene, and it is my hope that educational conferences may ultimately serve to stimulate the kind of thinking that will lead to the kind of research which will bring about improvement in our administrative and supervisory practices.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN MANITOBA

JOSEPH KATZ

Associate Professor of Education, University of Manitoba



ALL GOOD research begins with a good question. There are many good questions which can be asked in and about education in Manitoba; questions which, if properly attacked, and adequately answered, could lead to a new era in education in the province.

A good question for research is simple, direct, and clear. The question itself is so conceived and worded that a course of action is clearly designated. This course of action may not in itself be simple; it may, in fact, be quite complex, but it nevertheless permits of recognizing the road that has to be followed, and certainly permits of keeping

the goal clearly in mind. Furthermore, a good question is one which leads directly to other questions, those particularly which bear upon the clarity of the first.

There are many different kinds of good research, but for the most part these fall into two main categories; pure research in which knowledge is extracted from nature; and, applied research, which attempts to apply the findings of pure research to human needs and situations. In the field of education, applied research has taken two forms: individual research pursued by one or more persons and designed to discover the answer to a question of universal significance; group research, or action research, designed to discover the answer to a question of immediate or local application only.

Questions concerning administration, supervision, finance, subject matter, texts, objectives, methods, and materials are constantly being faced, and dealt with on a day-to-day basis, but without much information as to possible alternative courses of action. Although in the conduct of the schools decisions are essential for daily operation, and although some questions cannot wait for fact-gathering, wait-and-see procedures, not all questions are of this kind. In fact many questions now handled inadequately on the basis of one person's experience, have precise and useful answers to them which research has made possible—if only this research were called for and looked at. The statement that "experience" is the best teacher is meaningful only if the "teacher" has had a good "student"!

The administration of schools whether at the provincial or local level is usually concerned with questions of finance, school district organization, teacher selection and training, curriculum planning, text-book distribution, and the like. The questions regarding the financing of schools has recently been provided with materials for study by the pertinent data of the LaZerte and New Brunswick reports. However good these may be—and they are very good indeed—the answers are not necessarily the best for Manitoba,

but they do point to the kind of research which could obviously be of great benefit to Manitoba. We could ask, for example; Are our present sources of revenue adequate for our educational responsibility? What sources of revenue should be considered that are not now being used? What portion of each current year's income is actually going to education, and can this portion be justified? What portion of the cost for extra-curricular activities should be borne by the student, and what portion by the school?

Though questions of finance in education are signally important, questions of responsibility are equally worthy of attention. What is the best way to promote the decentralization of curriculum organization? How much responsibility for curriculum organization can be delegated to urban centres where the experience and training of staff is adequate? Should principals, superintendents, supervisors, and inspectors refrain from final decisions until viewpoints as to practice and policy have been expressed by all affected in a major degree by the decision? These are only a few of the questions which can be asked about administrative procedures, but they are examples of the kinds of questions which should be asked—and answers sought through impartial research procedures.

If one looks closely at supervision one finds that there are many questions indeed. Is the supervisor to be considered as the person with authority who supervises adherence to standards? Or, is the supervisor one who achieves authority through co-operative, friendly endeavour to produce the best kind of learning situation? Is the supervisor to be considered as one providing the answers? Or, is the supervisor the person who seeks to co-ordinate all resources needed—including himself or herself—in the study of a problem? Even asking these few questions seems to imply that the best supervisor is the one who emphasizes the asking rather than the answering of questions. Too often, the glib answer, the pat answer, the off-the-cuff solution impedes the proper administrative atmosphere; certainly it does very little to improve it.

Of course, when it comes to subjects of study in the school, questions are legion and complex. Though a great many studies are always underway, nevertheless there are still many more studies possible. For example: What is the best time to introduce the student to formal history? to fractions? to art? Should all students be required to take art and music? When should the deficient reader be introduced to a remedial program? What is the best way to handle the physically handicapped in school? What level of performance should be considered the minimum for continuation in a matriculation program leading to the university? What kind of student should be advised to select teaching as a profession? How reliable are the marks we assign to composition and to other subjects? How can we make sure that our examinations are related to the objectives of the course of study? Is our examination system the best? If not, what are its specific weaknesses?

Method is often looked upon as the ugly duckling of teaching. All other things in education being white, this subject alone brings forth black brows. Though Kipling did say that there are four and twenty ways of composing tribal lays, and that every single one of them is right, does not mean to say that some ways are not better than others, nor that for some particular instances, some ways are not best of all. Much research is

available to those interested in method, but here are some questions still to be answered: What emphasis on oral language will give best results in written performance? What do students really get from a lecture type of lesson? How can test results best be used as motivating devices?

An area of education upon which the light of research could profitably be focussed is that of the working conditions of teachers. A great deal of research has been focussed upon the physical facilities of schools, the architecture, lighting, seating, blackboard angles, and the like. Not nearly as much has been done about those conditions which most directly affect teachers. For example: How much free time should a teacher have in the course of a day for maximum efficiency? Should school time-tables allow "coffee breaks" for teachers? How many extra-curricular programs should a teacher be required to carry in addition to the regular teaching program? Are school boards justified in paying for teachers' post-graduate programs of special benefit to the school system? These are the kinds of questions which have to do with working conditions, and the answer to these questions could be of inestimable benefit to the teaching profession as a whole.

Another area of education wherein a good deal of research has been conducted lately is in the area of public relations. Although good public relations programs have been developed in connection with the building and financing of schools, not nearly as much has been done with respect to conveying information about the curriculum, discipline, administration, and the work of outstanding teachers. Questions asked at parent-teacher meetings have frequently centered upon the programs children are required to follow at school. Also, parents have been interested in finding out what was the best way in which they could be of help to the teacher and to the school. Here are problems worthy of research, problems which are constantly being faced, and for which answers are at present not readily available outside the realms of opinion.

Because so many questions confront education does not necessarily mean that these questions are not being dealt with every day. They have to be dealt with in a more or less rough and ready manner. What should be recognized is that the answers are rough and ready and not final. A ready answer is not necessarily a good answer. It may not be possible to discover the best answer quickly, but if a systematic study of the problem under consideration is made, then the best possible answer in the light of experience and knowledge becomes more probable. Furthermore, it is not possible, let alone desirable to attack all problems at once. A teacher, or a group of teachers, principles, inspectors—and sometimes, parents—together can select one problem in a school or system for co-operative study. Much value derives from many minds working together in seeking a solution. Not all problems lend themselves to this co-operative approach, but some do, and where this is true, group action is indicated.

These opportunities for educational research in Manitoba are but a few of the many available. Only through tackling the problems which exist is it possible to bring about any kind of satisfactory change. Change there will be whether or no research is pursued, but if these changes are the result of systematic research, then there is greater likelihood that the changes in education will be satisfactory. Good education stems from good answers to good questions.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

W. W. McCUTCHEON
Director, Faculty of Education, Brandon College

Vocational education in agriculture in the United States has changed in many ways since its beginning, and as Canadians ponder the future expansion of vocational agriculture in their schools they may well profit from the methods that have been used, and the developments that have taken place in the United States.

In the United States, agricultural education in the rural secondary schools has advanced rapidly in the years following the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. It is impossible to include here a complete account of the work that has been done in promoting agriculture in the schools of the United States since 1917, but, an attempt will be made to include some of the major developments that have occurred.

It is important at the very outset to point out that the Smith-Hughes Act, in co-operation with the individual states, not only provided funds for the salaries of the teachers and supervisors, but also provided that:

. . . no State shall receive any appropriation for salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, until it shall have taken advantage of at least the minimum amount appropriated for the training of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects . . .¹

Other legislation since then, such as the George-Deen Act of 1936 and the George Barden Act of 1946, have also appropriated funds for like purposes. As a result, for the first few years after 1917 considerable emphasis was given to the promotional and organizational aspects of agricultural education.² Because of the emphasis placed on teacher-training, there has been a corresponding emphasis given to the qualifications of those persons appointed to act as supervisors, teacher trainers, itinerant teacher trainers, and supervising teachers. Teacher trainers have been expected to be persons with farm experience, high technical and professional qualifications, and with considerable experience, as teachers of vocational agriculture.³ More recently teacher-training funds have been used to provide short courses of a technical nature to improve the qualifications of employed teachers and supervisors of vocational agriculture.⁴ Similar to the early recognition of the importance of properly trained teachers for vocational agriculture was a corresponding recognition of

1. See *Agricultural Education—Organization and Administration*, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 13, Revised 1939 (Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 39.

2. Rufus W. Stimson and Frank W. Lathrop, *History of Agricultural Education of Less Than College Grade in the United States*, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 217 (Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1942), p. 519.

3. Loc. cit.

4. Loc. cit.

the need for proper teaching materials, and consequently a general effort was made at an early date to remedy the situation.¹

The vocational agriculture course in the high schools of the United States has stressed the "school and home-farm co-operative" idea. The Smith-Hughes Act stipulated that: ". . . schools shall provide for directed or supervised practice in agriculture, either on a farm provided for by the school or other farm, for at least six months per year . . ."² It was also stipulated in the Smith-Hughes Act that the course in agriculture provided in the schools was to give instruction of less than college grade that would "fit for useful employment." Originally the practical work was thought of in terms of one project, but this idea has been superseded by what has become more commonly thought of as "continuation projects", extending over a longer period of time. In 1935, the United States Office of Education adopted the following method of naming and classifying supervised farming programmes:

1. Productive enterprise project, a business venture for profit usually limited to a production cycle in a farm enterprise.
2. Improvement project, a project intended to increase appreciably the real estate value of the farm or improve the efficiency of the farm business.
3. Supplementary farm practice, an activity which has as its purpose to develop the ability of the student in a practice or a job.
4. Placement for farm experience, a plan for affording farm experience to a town boy or a farm boy with too limited facilities, by transferring them to farms with adequate experience opportunities.³

Supervised farm practice programmes now seek to provide a start in farming by such means as ownership of livestock, and an equity in the home farm enterprise—thus working toward establishment in farming.⁴ Furthermore, efforts have been made to have instruction in agriculture become a continuing process through part-time and evening-school classes. In the Smith-Hughes Act reference was made to such an idea in the statement ". . . who have entered upon . . . the work of the farm . . ." It has also been recognized that prospective teachers of agriculture need to be trained in the methods of teaching out-of-school youth and adult classes.

At the junior high school level there is an effort being made in some states now to provide guidance through instruction in agriculture to aid pupils to make an intelligent choice when confronted with the opportunity of selecting vocational agriculture in the senior high school grades. The course in agriculture in the junior high school seeks to:

- (1) develop understanding and appreciation of the importance of agriculture, particularly farming, in the present and future living of the pupils as producers and consumers;

1. *Ibid.*, p. 559.

2. *Agricultural Education Organization and Administration*, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 13, *op. cit.*, p. 41

3. Rufus W. Stimson and Frank W. Lathrop, *op. cit.*, pp. 611-612.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 612.

- (2) develop interest and abilities in plant and animal production;
- (3) develop skills and abilities in construction and repair appropriate to the home and farm; and
- (4) (for those who choose to continue into the vocational agriculture curriculum) provide a start in a program of preparation for and establishment in farming.¹

In the United States the idea of a course of study in agriculture for an entire state has been superseded by the idea that the courses of study used in vocational agriculture should be developed on the basis of the types of farming in the community and the needs of the boys enrolled for the course. Similarly the idea that the course should follow a textbook has also been supplanted by the use of information obtained from a variety of sources. Then too, there has developed an extensive student organization movement, such as the Future Farmers of America and the New Farmers of America, made up of students taking the option in vocational agriculture in the high school. The primary objective of the young farmer clubs have been stated to be:—

1. To teach boys to work together.
2. To train leaders and followers.
3. To effect economic savings and develop service attitudes.
4. To serve the social interests of farm boys.
5. To cement interest in the agricultural departments.
6. To lead boys into farmer organizations.²

Vocational education in agriculture in the United States has undoubtedly been greatly stimulated by the assistance provided by the federal government through various acts, the first notable one being the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. From 1917 on, the programme has been developed along certain distinct lines. Provision was specifically made for such things as teacher-training and supervision. Supervised farming programmes have always been emphasized, and provision was also made for those who had started to farm by helping them to get instruction. The teaching of agriculture in the elementary grades has given disappointing results, and the agricultural schools have sometimes shown themselves to be expensive enterprises. In the secondary schools there has developed a method whereby the home and school co-operate to provide instruction in agriculture. Courses of study, teaching materials, student organizations, and research have received careful attention.

1. *Agriculture in the Junior High School*, Bulletin No. 1360 (Albany, N.Y.: The University of the State of New York Press, 1948), January 15, 1949, p. 6.

2. Rufus W. Stimson and Frank W. Lathrop, *op. cit.*, p. 533.

PROFESSOR W. W. McCUTCHEON



NEWLY appointed as the Director of the Faculty of Education at Brandon College, which also comprises the Normal School Course, is Dr. Wilfred Whyte McCutcheon.

Dr. McCutcheon's background in the field of education is impressive since he has studied various aspects of education in three countries—Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom. From Acadia University he received the degree of Bachelor of Education, and his permanent teaching diplomas are valid in two provinces of Canada—Nova Scotia and Quebec. In the academic year 1950-51 he was awarded a scholar-

ship to the Graduate School of Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. which enabled him to continue his work on a graduate program in rural education, including the study of agricultural education, guidance and the administration of rural education. Dr. McCutcheon's doctoral thesis was entitled "Factors for Consideration in the Establishment of Departments of Agriculture in the Protestant Rural Secondary Schools of Quebec and the Rural Secondary Schools of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia." He was awarded his doctorate degree in education by Cornell University in June 1951. Early in 1951 Dr. McCutcheon was chosen with one other Canadian to receive the Imperial Relations Trust Fellowship which enabled him to do a year of post doctoral work in education at the University of London Institute of Education. Adult education in the colleges and universities of the United Kingdom was chosen as the basis for study while in England. Also at London he attended classes in a variety of subjects. He had as his tutors the late Professor Sir Fred Clarke and Sir James Shelley. On completing his work at the University of London Dr. McCutcheon was made an Associate of the Institute of Education.

Dr. McCutcheon, has, in addition to education, qualifications in the fields of agriculture and economics. In 1938 he entered Macdonald College and graduated in 1942 with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Agriculture. He continued his education at Sir George Williams College and was awarded Bachelor of Science and Bachelor of Arts degrees. In 1948 he received his master's degree in economics from the University of Toronto.

Remarkable as it is, Dr. McCutcheon managed to do a great deal of his studying at the same time as he was teaching or employed in some other position. His work experiences have been varied due to his many qualifications and the necessity of taking off certain periods from work to complete his studies. However, this same variety of work experience has served to broaden his outlook and to form a reservoir of practical knowledge upon which he will many times draw in the future. His teaching experience includes both elementary and high school grades.

A VALIDATION STUDY OF THE MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY IN MANITOBA

by JAMES HARDY
M.Ed. Thesis Abstract

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study is to examine the validity of the **Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory** (1) in order to determine whether or not the application of the Inventory in Manitoba conditions warrant establishing norms for its use in certain local situations. These situations include teacher training institutions and school systems in the Greater Winnipeg area with twenty-eight or more teachers.

The MTAI is designed to predict how well a teacher or prospective teacher will get along with pupils and indirectly how well satisfied he will be as a teacher. In fact, the Inventory is designed to measure a very specific aspect of teaching competence only, namely, teacher-pupil interpersonal relationships, and so it can assess the potential success of candidates in the realm of human relations only.

It is a basic assumption of the MTAI that the ability to get along well with pupils is one of the most important characteristics of a superior teacher. It is also an assumption of the Inventory that the emotionalized attitudes of the pupils towards their teachers are chiefly the result of the teachers' attitudes toward children. Accepting these assumptions, pupil reaction to teachers should provide a very important criterion for validating the MTAI.

The importance of the problem is expressed in the statement that "it is the personality of the teacher that teaches school". In other words it is characteristics of a good teacher to establish and maintain co-operative and harmonious working conditions with his pupils in an atmosphere of mutual respect, sympathetic understanding, and kindness.

A second objective of this study is to determine whether or not any significant relationships exist between teacher attitude toward children and other teacher personal factors such as: age, teaching experience, religion, grade-levels, academic qualifications, intelligence, scholarship-leadership attainment, and professional training in education.

A third objective of this investigation is a thorough study of the MTAI and a complete review of both the literature and original documents related to the Inventory.

The Population Groups

Five population groups are considered in this study, namely; Grade XII students from the Greater Winnipeg area, Normal School student-

1. Walter W. Cook, Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, **Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory**, N.Y.: The psychological Corporation, 1951.

teachers, Faculty of Education student-teachers, experienced teachers from the Greater Winnipeg area, and experienced teachers taking 'off-campus' courses in Education.

The Method of Study

The data for these studies were obtained from an extensive testing program of local teacher population groups using random sampling techniques. Control groups were used whenever experimental studies of 'effect' were desired.

The Treatment of the Data

The techniques of analysis of variance, critical ratio of differences between means, and product-moment correlation were used in analyzing the data. In order to combine the criterion scores of pupils and advisers, all raw scores were converted into T-scores.

Major Findings

1. The validity of the MTAI was considered in three separate studies. The obtained correlations of 0.39, 0.56, and 0.45 between student-teachers' MTAI scores and outside criteria indicated with considerable assurance that the MTAI was a valid predictor of how well a candidate would be likely 'to get along' with pupils.
2. The MTAI was found to be a highly reliable instrument. Reliability coefficients of 0.88 and 0.92 were obtained by the test-retest method.
3. From 'biased' and 'faking' studies with student-teachers, the MTAI was found not to be highly susceptible to faking.
4. It was found that pupil reaction could be measured with a high degree of reliability (0.89, 0.91).
5. It was found in this study that the MTAI differentiated significantly high among 'grade-levels' so as to warrant the building of separate norms for each of the following groups:

- (1) Grade XII students.
- (2) Normal School primary student-teachers.
- (3) Normal School elementary student-teachers.
- (4) Normal School secondary student-teachers.
- (5) Faculty of Education student-teachers.
- (6) Experienced primary teachers.
- (7) Experienced elementary teachers.
- (8) Experienced secondary teachers.

Minor Findings

1. No significant difference was found to exist between the attitude of Catholics and the Protestants as measured by the MTAI.
2. There appeared to be a positive relationship between scholarship-leadership attainment and MTAI scores. This relationship was found to be significant at the ten per cent level.

3. At the Faculty of Education, there was no relationship found between the intelligence of the student-teachers as measured by the ACE and teacher attitude as measured by the MTAI. The obtained correlation of -.14 was found to be not significantly different from zero.

4. Faculty of Education student-teachers' MTAI scores correlated significantly and negatively with their scores on the Ta scale (a proposed teacher-attitude scale for the MMPI). This finding provided additional evidence of the validity of the MTAI.

5. The MTAI scores were found to be unaffected by age or teaching experience, indicating that the authors had successfully eliminated those items which would have given weight to experience.

6. The MTAI was found not to discriminate significantly between teachers taking 'off-campus' courses in educational method and theory and teachers from the general population of Greater Winnipeg area.

7. A highly significant difference was observed between teachers who had completed a course in mental hygiene and teachers who had taken other 'off-campus' courses in Education. This difference was found significant at the one per cent level.

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THE PART PLAYED BY THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY IN WESTERN CANADIAN EDUCATION, 1821-69

by S. S. HARVEY

M.Ed. Thesis Abstract

Purpose of the Study

One frequently finds in the history of pioneer days in Western Canada, references to assistance given by the Hudson's Bay Company to the settlers and Indians, but there has never been a complete description of the Company's assistance to educational enterprises in the West.

The purpose of this study is to test the hypothesis that the Hudson's Bay Company provided significant support for education in Western Canada during the period 1821-69. (The investigation was centered nearly completely on this half century because before 1821 the Company never exercised a monopoly in its government of Rupert's Land.)

Sources of Data

As the Company maintained a consistent silence about its affairs until 1931, recourse to much authoritative data concerning the history of the West was denied to historians who wrote prior to that date. In 1931, however, this traditional silence was discarded and several eminent historians have since been allowed complete use of the Company's archives in London. One of these men was A. S. Morton whose history of the Canadian West was a most valuable reference during this study.

Canadian Archives in the Manitoba Legislative Library contain two volumes rich with evidence for this study. One is the Minutes of Council of the Company's Northern department edited by Professor Oliver. The other is the Report of the select Committee of the British House of Commons of 1857 on the Hudson's Bay Company. This report is mainly the minutes of the committee's meetings while it investigated the affairs of the Company in general and its government of Rupert's Land in particular.

When D. L. McLaurin was writing his Master's Thesis on the history of education in British Columbia, he copied letters, etc., pertaining to education which were located by him in the archives of the Parliament Buildings in Victoria. These letters from the McLaurin Thesis were used by the present writer as evidence of the Company's educational contributions on Vancouver Island.

Findings:

The evidence shows that, although the Company was under no legal obligation to do anything for education, its support of education was continuous and generous. During the half century investigated, while most central governments were only beginning to accept some responsibility in education and to pay part of its costs, in Rupert's Land we find a commercial concern consistently making valuable contributions, not from a

calculating plan for profits, but chiefly from a sincere desire to improve the lot of its peoples. Missionaries established most of the early schools, and one of the Company's outstanding contributions to education was its financial support given to these missionaries.

The contributions of the Company were divided by this writer into tangible and intangible support. The latter category contains, among others, the following: The Company was always in favour of education and enthusiastically encouraged it for all classes. In fact, the Company's Rules and Regulations required parents to do what they could to provide elementary education in their homes for their children when schools were not available. Several posts conducted evening schools for Indians and whites together. Transportation in Company boats and hospitality at its posts were usually provided free to missionaries. Furthermore, the Company conducted several valuable kinds of vocational training. It had experimental farms, it aided exploration, it insisted on conservation of wildlife, and it vaccinated the majority of the 40,000 Indians of the thick-wood area of Rupert's Land.

The tangible support provided by the Company consists of contributions in books, buildings, lands and money. At various places a total of nearly a score of substantial buildings were supplied by the Company as schools and churches. Land grants were made to approximately forty missions. The largest grant, twenty miles square, was given to the St. Boniface Mission. During the half century, the Company's monetary grants-in-aid totalled approximately £45,000 in days when the buying power of the pound was nearly ten times as great as it is now. This is a very valuable assistance for so few people.

Evidence shows that this powerful support was a direct expression of the type of men who were Company officers. They took great pride in providing a thoroughly humane, paternal governance for the natives. Never have the Indians been so contented. The proud, fine men of the Company formed a remarkable corps; no other commercial concern has produced their equal. Early western education would have been much retarded without the continuous encouragement and generous financial support of the Company.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE JESUIT CODE OF EDUCATION IN CANADIAN JESUIT HIGH SCHOOLS

By REV. ROBERT W. MEAGHER
M.Ed. Thesis Abstract

For more than four centuries the members of the Jesuit Order have been engaged in educational work on the secondary and university levels. Governing their educational philosophy and practice is the code: **The Ratio Studiorum**. On the European and American scenes scope is given for the implementation of this code in most of its details. Such, however, is not the case in the five Canadian Provinces in which the English-speaking members of the Order presently conduct High Schools; for Canadian education, in virtue of the British North American Act, is a Provincial matter and all schools which seek recognition, the Jesuits' not excepted, must conform to local regulations. Hence, the question asked in this comparative-philosophical thesis is this: Is it possible for the English Canadian Jesuits to adhere to the tenets of the *Ratio Studiorum* and still align themselves with the various Provincial philosophies of education?

Terms of the Analysis

The broad terms of the comparison are the *Ratio Studiorum* and the Philosophies governing High School curricula in the Provinces of Nova Scotia, Ontario, English-speaking Quebec, Manitoba and Saskatchewan. By the term 'philosophy' is meant the aggregate of educational principles which govern a school situation and which are concretized and made capable of analysis through a specific program of studies. Hence, the various programs of study are taken as *prima facie* evidence of the various Departments' thinking; inductively, then, the analyst proceeds to a statement of the general aims and objectives of the several Provincial systems. In the initial stages, the comparison involves a juxtaposition of the curriculum of the Jesuit High School and that of the Department of Education in each Province under consideration. Then, the more salient common denominators of the two systems, Jesuit and Provincial are brought to light and the major points of agreement and divergence noted.

The institutions considered in this study are: St. Mary's University High School, Halifax; Regiopolis College High School, Kingston; Loyola College High School, Montreal; St. Paul's College High School, Winnipeg; and Campion College High School, Regina. In each instance a detailed statement of the curriculum of these Jesuit schools is given in narrative and tabular form; necessary historical and geographical data are presented and the resulting picture is analyzed in the light of the Province's High School and University entrance requirements. Kindred factors, such as the adequacy of facilities, Governmental inspection, Matriculation results and community role are also recognized.

One restriction was set in the matter of the Provincial curricula considered; since all Jesuit schools are dedicated to the task of providing either the 'general' or pre-University training, all possible analyses and statements of technical, commercial or vocational courses as obtained in our Canadian Provinces are omitted. The reason for so doing is apparent: if the pivotal question of the thesis is to be treated in objective fashion, then the matter of alignment to Provincial philosophies will be settled only by studying the Jesuits' programs in the frame-work of that section of Canadian education in which their institutions are operative, viz. the 'general' and pre-University areas.

The several Provincial courses of study are taken as they are; it does not lie within the scope of the thesis to evaluate such programs, nor to predict possible sources of frustration in the realization of the aims therein contained.

The Ratio Studiorum

The **Ratio atque Institutio Studiorum Societatis Jesu** is, in reality, a compilation of principles and practices employed by the members of the Jesuit Order since the founding of the College at Messina in 1547. This educational code appears in two parts: one governing Seminaries and institutes of higher learning; the other applying to schools on the secondary level. The thesis deals with the second of these. For an adequate understanding of the **Ratio Studiorum** some historical and philosophical background is essential. Thus, the section of the thesis which deals explicitly with the **Ratio Studiorum** contains the following material:

- A. The mind of Ignatius Loyola on the role his order was to play, in Europe and in foreign lands;
- B. The founding of the Colleges at Messina and Rome;
- C. The framing of the **Ratios** of 1586, 1591 and 1832;
- D. The approved codification following the tentative editions;
- E. The contents of the **Ratio** of 1832;
- F. The place of the Humanities in the **Ratio**;
- G. Specific Jesuit procedures; the prelection, repetitions, academies;
- H. The influence of the **Spiritual Exercises of Ignatius** on the **Ratio Studiorum**.

To make the foregoing elements of value in the matter of comparison, a general statement of the philosophy of the Canadian Jesuit High School is presented. Treated in this section are the following:

- A. The Pupil: his capacities, limitations, differences, educational implications;
- B. The Pupil and Society: the family, the state, the Church, educational implications;
- C. The Curriculum; values, mastery, integration;
- D. The Staff: training, ideals, personal contact;
- E. The Method: orientation, motivation, assignments, location of difficulties, mastery;
- F. Objectives: as a Secondary school, as a Canadian school, as a Catholic school, as a Jesuit school.

Analyses and Conclusions

A definite relationship exists between a philosophy of education, a course of study and a subject curriculum. The curriculum may be said to be posited midway between the other two forces; it is the effect of the educational philosophy and the cause of the course of studies. It receives specification from the fundamental tenets regarding the aims of education in general and allows of application to a concrete situation through a further delineation in the detailed course of studies.

Hence, the major objectives of the six educational systems under consideration (Nova Scotia, English Catholic Quebec, Protestant Board of Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and the **Ratio Studiorum**) are considered as they have bearing on the following areas:

- A. The student as an intellectual entity;
- B. The student as a physical entity;
- C. The student as a social entity;
- D. The student as a spiritual-moral entity;

From these conclusions, an evaluation was reached: that the Jesuit system is in marked alignment with the Canadian Provincial objectives with regard to the natural aims of education; but that the Jesuits (or any Catholic system) extend their aims to include, too, the supernatural aspects of the educand.

From a curricular point of view the following conclusions were reached:

- A. The usual 'core' subjects (English, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science, Physical Education) are found in all Jesuit syllabi;
- B. The language field is more extensive in the Jesuit schools;
- C. The Provincial systems offer a greater variety of commercial and technical-vocational electives in the 'general' course;
- D. There is a narrower field of science electives in the Jesuit schools;
- E. Jesuit schools provide more formal training in elocution and public speaking and in religious and moral matters.

No dichotomy can be found between the Canadian Provincial systems and that of the **Ratio Studiorum**. Rather, the latter is the elongation of the former, including, as it does, both the natural and the supernatural levels.

Finally, a translation of a seventeenth century description of a Jesuit school in action (from the Sloane Manuscripts) is offered in an appendix.

THE SIGNIFICANCE GIVEN TO EDUCATION ON THE EDITORIAL PAGES OF LEADING WINNIPEG NEWSPAPERS, 1936-50

by W. A. LORNE McFARLAND

M.Ed. Thesis Abstract

Purpose of the Study

This study attempted to survey and analyze the comment on educational matters appearing on the editorial pages of the Winnipeg Free Press and the Winnipeg Tribune from 1936 to 1950.

The investigation had a two-fold purpose; first, to show the extent to which educational topics had commanded space on the editorial pages; and, secondly, to determine what trends in editorial thought on education appeared to be dominant both in editorial writing themselves and through the policy practiced in selecting educational items for the editorial page.

Sources of Information

The material which formed the basis for this study was obtained by a careful examination of the editorial pages of both the Winnipeg Free Press and the Winnipeg Tribune. Since the period surveyed covered fifteen full years from January 1, 1936 to December 31, 1950, the number of items used provided an adequate sample for the purposes of the study. In all, 9,356 editorial pages were examined and a total of 3,248 educational items were summarized and recorded.

Technique of the Investigation

The major steps in analysis were as follows:

1. Calculation of the percentages of space given to education on the editorial page by each of the two newspapers concerned.
2. Compilation of the number of items and space allotments by months and years for each newspaper.
3. Classification of the different items into types; that is, editorials, articles, reprints and miscellaneous items.
4. Classification of the different items into major educational areas. Thirteen of these were set up, namely, University of Manitoba, other Universities, Manitoba schools in general, Winnipeg schools, other Manitoba schools, schools outside Manitoba, education in general, adult education, educational research, libraries and museums, fine arts, technical-vocational education, and teachers' associations.
5. A detailed analysis of a sample of the items from each of the foregoing major areas. From the many specific topics, certain of them, judged to be of interest and value, were selected for extended discussion.

Findings

1. The main emphasis of the press in the educational field has been at the university and adult level.

2. Both newspapers have strongly supported the University of Manitoba and have consistently urged greater financial support for it.

3. The press has been strongly in favour of the establishment of larger units of school administration in the rural areas of Manitoba.

4. The impact of World War II on our society revealed some serious defects in our educational system, particularly as regards technical training.

5. The press has given little support to the progressive movement in education. Press comment has rather tended to view progressive education with disfavour as being a movement lacking in discipline both for body and mind.

6. Financial problems were found to be a matter of major concern at all educational levels. The need for adequate financial support for education was stated to be necessary before real educational progress could be made.

7. The period was characterized by a steady decline in interest in the liberal arts subjects and by a correspondingly marked trend towards utilitarian types of educational programmes.

8. There appeared to be a gradual but persistent lowering of educational standards which could, in part at least, be traced to the trend towards progressive education which its philosophy of education made easy.

9. The lack of sufficient well-trained teachers appeared to be a universal complaint in the field of public education. This persistent teacher shortage could largely be traced to low salaries, unsatisfactory working conditions, and insecurity of tenure.

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RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TRAINING OF GIFTED CHILDREN

HEATHER BROOKS

An Essay by an Education I Student

The identification and special training of gifted children in the schools is important because the world needs leaders; it needs original, creative thinkers in all areas and these thinkers will develop from the group known as "gifted". This essay discusses methods of guidance for the gifted child.

Brilliant children like all other children need special guidance suited to their needs, and educators are worried about the lack of this special provision. Thorndike evaluates the adult intellectual status of Terman's gifted children and comes to the conclusion that it exhibits "considerable regression back toward the mean of the general population".¹ Jewett attributes this regression to the failure of schools to challenge these pupils with suitable curriculum and teaching.

Acceleration is the oldest and easiest administrative practice that is supposed to help gifted children. The simplest kind of acceleration is grade-skipping, but recently other plans implying various degrees of segregation have been put into effect. For example, the new Three-School-Three-College plan in New England administered by the Ford Foundation provides for the completion of the eight years of secondary school and college in seven years. The Foundation, in cooperation with several large eastern United States schools and colleges, also administers a program of early admission to college.² Cleveland High Schools have provided for faster moving classes since 1921,³ and Baltimore's Robert E. Lee School offers up to two years' acceleration in special classes.⁴

Most authorities agree that moderate amount of acceleration, even simple grade-skipping, is desirable. As early as 1933, Witty and Wilkins found evidence to support this proposition in the superior social adjustment and intellectual development of children accelerated in high school.⁵ Recently, Terman and Oden added to this evidence by finding that younger-than-average college freshmen, (presumably accelerated in high

1. R. L. Thorndike, "An evaluation of the adult intellectual status of Terman's gifted children", *Pedagogical seminary and journal of genetic psychology*, 72:17-27, March, 1948, quoted in *Bibliography of exceptional children*, *Elementary school journal*, 49:548, April, 1949.
2. Paul Witty, "Education of the gifted", *School and society*, 78:1, No. 2018, Oct. 17, 1953.
3. D. E. Norris, "Special classes for superior children", *Dept. of Elem. Sch. Principals Bulletin*, N.E.A., 19, No. 6, July, 1940.
4. Witty, *op. cit.*
5. Paul Witty and L. Wilkins, "Status of acceleration . . . as an administrative practice", *Educ. admin. & supervision*, 19:321-46, July, 1933.

school), made better marks, produced more honor students, and took part in more social and other campus activities than entrants of average age.⁶

The main objection to acceleration is that it does not offer a sufficient answer. More advanced work will challenge the gifted child, but it needs more than challenge. It needs a broadened, deeper curriculum to help increase its understanding, and in the next section dealing with the pros and cons of an enrichment curriculum, the importance of this is pointed out. Also, simple acceleration does not keep up with gifted children. If they are put in a class with equals in mental development at the beginning of the term, by the end of the term they will be ahead of it. Terman and Oden found many gifted children four grades ahead of their placement in subject-matter mastery, and found that the average gifted child, (I.Q. plus 135), had assimilated 44% more subject matter than demanded by his grade placement.⁷ Acceleration is better than nothing, but it is not enough. We must develop an enrichment curriculum, within the classroom, within the school, or with complete segregation.

Some authorities have suggested that a heterogeneous classroom method of enriching the curriculum is the best way of solving the problem. In 1940, Witty⁸ argued that this procedure is the only democratic way, and that gifted children could develop a sense of social responsibility only by working along with average children. He, like others who are removed from the classroom, deplored any form of segregation both because it deprived children of the benefit of heterogeneous group interaction, and because we have only uncertain methods of selection. He offered then, and again in 1948,⁹ a positive, detailed program to support his view, involving reading guidance, leadership in group activities, research, creative writing, and time-saving pre-tests. W. S. Gray¹⁰ suggests that segregated homogeneous groups are not homogeneous at all, and require just as much individual guidance as unsegregated groups. Considering the objections to segregation, he does not see much point in it, and presents a stimulating reading program for helping gifted children in heterogeneous classes.

Sheridan¹¹ and Albers and Seagoe¹² contend that administration of enrichment within the classroom is easier than in segregated classrooms.

6. L. M. Terman & M. H. Oden, *The gifted child grows up*, Stanford U. Press, 1947, p.28, in Witty, Sch. & soc., Oct. 17, 1953.
7. *op. cit.*, p. 32.
8. "Some considerations in the education of gifted children," *Educ. admin. & supervision*, 26:512-22, Oct., 1940.
9. "The needs of bright and gifted children", *N.E.A. jl.*, 37:358-9, Sept., 1948.
10. "Education of the gifted child with special reference to reading", *Elem. sch. jl.*, 42:736-744, 1942.
11. M. C. Sheridan, "Enrichment through independent reading", *N.E.A. jl.*, 41:566-7, Dec., 1952.
12. M. E. Albers & M. V. Seagoe, "Enrichment for superior children in algebra classes", *Jl. of educ. research*, 40:481-95, March, 1947.

"It works", they say, and show how their enrichment units stimulated work and interest, and moreover took up very little of the teacher's time.

Most educators in the classroom, however, reject this point of view, and reveal two serious deficiencies in such plans. Of course, in small schools enrichment units present the only possible line of attack on the problem, and suggestions for these units must be considered valuable. However, this consideration really acts more as an argument for consolidated schools than as an argument against segregation. The deficiencies remain. First, the plan implies that every classroom teacher is qualified to deal with heterogeneous units and with gifted pupils. This state of affairs is obviously neither existent nor obtainable, and it is easier to train teachers to teach segregated groups. Also, as even Witty is now admitting,¹³ with the heavier teaching load almost inevitably forecast by the high birth-rate of the forties, it seems unlikely that most teachers could find time for special work with pupils who seem to need it least.¹⁴ Secondly, no standard procedure for dealing with gifted children within the classroom has been laid down anywhere, and no one seems able to agree on what it should be. Therefore, even if the majority of our teachers were able and willing, they would still have very little guidance in their work. In contrast with this situation, educators have made a start in working out the problems of segregation.

They look at the problem in two ways. One school of thought¹⁵ says that gifted children should be segregated only to the extent that facilitates optimum intellectual development. However, as we shall see later, this does not mean that the school should not offer other than intellectual guidance. The children should work as segregated groups, each child at his own rate, and under well trained teachers. These groups should all be within a school and take part in social, physical and administrative activities on the same basis. Other educators¹⁶ say that insistence on heterogeneous social participation is mere sentimentalism and not valid scientifically, and that gifted children need close social as well as intellectual guidance. Therefore, although they admit that segregation within a school is often the best that can be achieved under many circumstances, they say that completely separate schools for gifted children should be the ultimate aim of educators. First some of the suggested programs of the partial segregationists will be examined, and then the charges of "inadequate" levelled by the complete segregationists will be considered.

Beginning with one of the oldest programs, we see that Cleveland has offered "Major Work Classes" since 1921. These are special classes with an activity program, but they are graded and socially integrated

13. Sch. & soc., Oct. 17, 1953.

14. Jewett, *op. cit.*

15. Witty, Jewett, Burnside, Mosso, Blair.

16. Hollingsworth, Terman, Danielson, Thorndike.

with school life.¹⁷ In 1942, Burnside¹⁸ reports "Honor-work Classes" which meet college requirements, but utilize a broader than usual curriculum. The Dalton Plan of instruction, (no drill, long-term assignments), is followed, and members receive a "roving pass" to sit in on any class desired. Although A. M. Mosso's¹⁹ "Seminar for superior high school seniors" reported in 1945, is not as comprehensive as Burnside's program, it is interesting because the seminars emphasize discussions of characteristics of leadership. Mosso also makes the suggestion that detailed achievement records of gifted children should be kept, analyzed, and used for guidance."²⁰

Jewett,²¹ although he recognizes that segregation is not always possible, and accordingly outlines enrichment units to challenge gifted children, prefers separate classes guided by specially trained teachers. He points out that, in the past, segregated classes have often failed in their purpose because they failed to provide this special guidance or an enriched curriculum. The curriculum he suggests emphasizes language, because this tool will be vital to future international leaders. Also supporting this emphasis on language, Gray²² adds that, in studying it, children can best learn precise handling of complex relationships. He goes on to say, too, that they can learn to work by themselves with language, and that they can be given careful direction in techniques of criticism and research. The achievement of all these aims is essential in the education of gifted children.

Even in the last two years, educators have developed many new procedures for dealing with partially segregated groups. Unfortunately, nearly all the copies of 1951 and 1952 periodicals are being bound, and therefore I could not find first-hand reports of the new projects. However, in the October 17, 1953 issue of *School and Society*, Paul Witty has surveyed recent developments, and although his article cannot be considered comprehensive, it does indicate that something is beginning to get done. He cites special science classes at Forest High School, Yonkers, N.Y., a new program at Evanston and Winnetka, Ill., the Classes for Independent Study at Modesto, Calif., and Santa Barbara's and San Diego's full-time coordinator-consultants. C. L. Reeves and Constance Chandler of Ventura, California, consider adequate counselling as important as intellectual guidance and have set up a program using a case-study approach with emphasis on home and school cooperation. Just in this month's *Time*,²³ I saw a new scheme noted. It operates under

17. Norris, *op. cit.*

18. J. Burnside, "An experimental program in the education of the intellectually gifted adolescent", *School review*, 50:274-85, 1942.

19. *School review*, 53:464-70, Oct., 1945.

20. cf. recommendations of special committee of N.E.A., S. M. Corey, Chairman, "Discovery of outstanding talent in youth", *Teach. Coll. rec.*, 48:260-8, Jan. 1947.

21. *op. cit.*

22. *op. cit.*

23. 63:1, Jan. 4, 1954, p.41.

the committee administering the Fund for the Advancement of Education, and offers advanced courses in high school that can be taken for full college credit.

Witty also mentions two other approaches that seem to be in line with the recommendations of a special committee of N.E.A.²⁴ Both Reeve and Chandler's case-study experiment and Mosso's previously mentioned developmental records accord with other suggestions of this committee. Witty discusses the \$71,000 a year high school scholarship fund established in Rochester, New York, and the experimental elementary gifted group set up in Los Angeles. The recommendations of this committee are mostly concerned with identification, and therefore this essay cannot evaluate them, but its findings must be considered valuable because of their unanimous endorsement by a large number of outstanding educators, and it is interesting to see them coming into effect so quickly.

Keeping this rapid development in mind, let us examine the total segregationists' arguments for separate schools. I think we shall find they have had the ground cut out from under them by the recent experiments. The programs still are experimental and therefore cannot yet be evaluated, but looking back over them I think we can see that they are attempting to do everything Hollingsworth *et al* thought only separate schools could do. Hollingsworth²⁵ has said that to educate gifted children for leadership we must give them hard work and demand precise habits; we must guide them emotionally to "suffer fools gladly" and thus avoid a negative attitude to authority; we must guide them socially and offer them the companionship of equals to prevent them becoming hermits; and we must give them financial support. Since she made this excellent analysis of needs in 1938, however, steps have been taken to fill all these requirements within the school system. Educators have admitted that partial segregation is necessary to realize gifted children's capacity to lead, but at the same time they have continued to insist that interaction with the *hoi polloi* is necessary to prevent fascistic leadership, despite contrary evidence in the form of such persons as Churchill, Attlee, Gandhi.

However, because some prosperous American communities have begun to solve the problem of training gifted children for leadership, it does not mean the whole problem is about to disappear. The time when all school boards recognize they should spend extra money on the people that learn most easily is in the distant future. Teacher-training institutions offering courses in the guidance of gifted children are almost non-existent, and Witty recommends only one, the series of workshops known as the Portland-Reed College Program.²⁶ The problem of teacher-training opens another question: even if we had adequate training facili-

24. Corey, *op. cit.*

25. L. S. Hollingsworth, "What we know about the early selection and training of leaders", *Teach. Coll. record*, 40:515, April, 1939.

26. Sch. & soc., Oct. 17, 1953. This program is also administered by the Ford Foundation.

ties, how would we attract the essential intelligent, well-integrated people into a relatively underpaid profession. The problem of sufficiently early identification is still unsolved, and the reader will note that elementary programs are rather scarce.

Another yet unanswered question must be faced in order to make our aim more precise. What kind of leaders are needed, purely scientific or social-political? Is it possible to guide our most brilliant minds into a consideration of social and political fields rather than into scientific abstractions? Can we do this by providing them with satisfactory social contacts in youth? Anne Roe²⁷ shows that men of highest I.Q. become theoretical scientists, are lonely as children, and drift into science because it offers a satisfying and consuming interest without much contact with people. The gifted child is bound to lack companionship in the average school system surrounded by average intellects, and that if new programs can provide social satisfaction among equals, perhaps we can guide precise, unprejudiced, Einsteinian minds into whole-hearted consideration of human problems.

The problems of the educators of gifted children are just begun. However, more and more people are worrying about the advance of mediocrity into our intellectual potential, and some educators are developing methods to combat it in the light of what we know.

27. "The making of a scientist", *Scientific American*, Nov., 1952, 88, No. 11. Her findings have also been published in professional journals, and since in the form of a book of the same title, published by Dodd, Mead & Co., 1953.

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